Adolescent perspectives of father involvement in semi urban families

by

Phetolo Reetsang

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER EDUCATIONIS

Department of Educational Psychology

Faculty of Education

University of Pretoria

Supervisor:

Prof Salomé Human-Vogel

PRETORIA

March 2020

I dedicate this research to my parents whom I dearly love and respect. My parents have always been my number one supporters and never lost faith, even when the future looked bleak. I am grateful and thank them for their constant support, endless prayers and sacrifices they made, some without my knowledge. Mama, Papa, may God continue to bless you and favour you as he has been doing for all these years.

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I declare that the mini-dissertation titled "**Adolescent perspectives of father involvement in semi urban families**" which I hereby submit for the degree Masters Educationis in Educational Psychology at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution.

.....

Phetolo Reetsang

March 2020

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	CLEARANCE NUMBER: **EP 17/04/04**
DEGREE AND PROJECT	M.Ed Adolescent perspectives of father involvement in semi urban families
INVESTIGATOR	Ms. Phetolo Reetsang
DEPARTMENT	Educational Psychology
APPROVAL TO COMMENCE STUDY	26 June 2017
DATE OF CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	30 January 2020

CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS COMMITTEE: Prof Funke Omidire

CC Ms Bronwynne Swarts
Prof Salomé Human-Vogel

This Ethics Clearance Certificate should be read in conjunction with the Integrated Declaration Form (D08) which specifies details regarding:

- Compliance with approved research protocol,
- No significant changes,
- Informed consent/assent,
- Adverse experience or undue risk,
- Registered title, and
- Data storage requirements.

DECLARATION FROM LANGUAGE EDITOR

Acknowledgment of Language Editing

Date: Monday, 13 January 2020

This is to certify that I have conducted Language Editing on the following:

Adolescent perspectives of father involvement in semi urban families

by
Phetolo Reetsang

Algraham

Andrew Graham (BA, MA dist., PhD, University of Keele, UK)*

Email: happy4andrew@hotmail.com

*Former Tutor in Postgraduate Writing Centre and Managing Editor of ISI Accredited Journal

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following people for being there when I needed it the most and making sure that they stayed constant through this journey.

- I cannot have gone through and completed this journey without my Lord. God has surely been faithful even in times when I was doubting this degree. Thank you, Father, for always finding a way to motivate me, push me and save me from unfavourable conditions through my journey in studying for this degree.

- My family, Mr Baboloki Reetsang, Mrs Dimpho Reetsang and Mr Senatla Reetsang, thank you so much for your love and patience. I know it wasn't easy at times but I do appreciate your support and understanding that this degree meant a lot to me. I don't take for granted those late nights you had to wait for me at the bus station whenever I had to come home, I am truly blessed with such an amazing family.

- To my partner, Mr Lebo Seete, thank you, my love, for always checking if I have addressed my supervisor's queries on time. It might have not meant much to you but it definitely pushed me. I am also grateful for your presence in my life when it happened because you ensured that I get enough time to focus on my studies whilst you took care of the chores.

- To Miss Warona Solomon and Mrs Bonolo Ratsie, you ladies are the custodians of my sanity! You know the good, the bad and the ugly of this milestone. I would have not gotten through this journey without your support, cheerleading and just simply being there to listen to my complaints. You ladies are gems and I thank you!

- To my close friends, Miss Precious Hadebe, Miss Saraclaire Manjoro, Mrs Everjoyce Lefenya and Miss Boitumelo Mongwaketse, guys thank you. I know sometimes it was not easy because I could not attend important life events because of this degree, but you were always understanding. You knew that this was a dream that I wanted to achieve and you were accommodating. Most people lose friends and relationships over this degree because you basically do not have a social life, but I am very blessed to have friends like you who are patient and understanding.

- To my support group throughout my studies, I would also like to thank the Makgonatsotlhe group. We started out as just a study group but ended up finding a family in each other. The late nights in the media room, lunch breaks at the commons, all those moments I cherish forever. Remember our theme song; “Started from the bottom now we here” let us continue to grow and rise in our respective careers.

- To my work colleagues, Miss Lerato Ndlovu, Mrs Amanda Tapfumanei and Miss Nonjabulo Mazibuko, thank you guys for always putting a smile on my face when I was feeling tired from the cross nighting. You always knew how to make me forget about my school work and be present in what was happening in the world and life at that particular moment. That meant a lot because I was able to step away from school, rejuvenate and be ready to start again with research after working hours.

- To my bosses, Dr Sethusa and Dr Matimbi, thank you for understanding the importance of my dream. You allowed me to take days off work to attend meetings with my supervisor, work late at the office and the once in a while check ins on how school is doing. Thank you Dr P and Nozi for the opportunity you gave me to join the family.

- Lastly, I would like to thank my supervisor Prof Salome Human-Vogel. Prof you have pushed me out of my comfort zone and have made a better researcher out of me. Even though it was painful at times, I now look back and see the beautiful results. Thank you Prof!

ABSTRACT

Father involvement is a prominent topic in literature and the discourse often refers to the availability and presence of the biological father in the home. Most homes in South Africa are female headed in which fathers are absent and not involved in their children's lives because of factors such as poverty; cultural expectations of paying for damages and pride price as well as commitment to be part of the child's life. South Africa has one of the highest rates of non-resident fathers in Africa, with nine million children growing up without fathers. Currently there is insufficient literature on paternity, including father involvement in South Africa, hence this study. It will explore how an African child perceives father involvement, in order to inform professionals when providing interventions. A qualitative exploratory case study design was used to inductively generate themes from five learners relating to their perspective, using semi-structured interviews and a focus group discussion interview. From thematic analysis of the participants' extractions, three themes emerged as the research question answers: i) Theme 1: Impact of father presence/absence on the child; ii) Theme 2: Father's contribution towards the family; and ii) Theme 3: Family functioning. The results encapsulate the different aspects of what a South African father's role represents.

Keywords: effective father involvement; absent father; present father; father support; fathering role; South African fathers; role functioning, role allocation, role accountability

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1 - OVERVIEW AND RATIONALE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

A man in the African context is considered to be carrying out his fatherly duties when he is a provider, protector and disciplinarian (Sikweyiya, Shai, Gibbs, Mahlangu, & Jewkes, 2017). His participation as a father may have a profound and significant impact on the life of the child and mother (Levton, Vander Gaag, Greene, Kaufman & Baker, 2015) and, as Morrell and Swart (2012) point out, he may support the child and remain in contact with the mother despite living in separate homes. Looking at the African context, Makusha and Richter (2015) found a father's involvement might be measured according to physical location, emotional support and financial provision. For instance, in South Africa, the focus of this study, a biological father's role and influence in families is central and highly valued, even when he is a non-resident parent. This complicates description and understanding of father involvement as a phenomenon and is a significant departure from former Western perspectives. Father involvement in Western perspectives generally dictated that families in which the parents were married and resided in the same home provided an ideal platform for childrearing that would have positive outcomes for the child (Okeke, 2018; Parke, 2008; Walsh, 2003). As Holborn and Eddy (2011) argue, South Africa may not have the traditional nuclear family structures due to factors such as HIV/AIDS, violence, poverty, social inequality and incarceration, which often leave children growing up in families where the fathers are not involved. Literature shows that 46% of children are living without fathers in South Africa (StatsSA, 2018), in part due to the state of the economy, particularly in semi urban 'areas (Fazel; 2017; Kamau & Davies, 2018; Taliep, Ismail & Titi, 2018). The current state of non-committed fathers in South Africa poses a threat to children, as paternal involvement is often associated with securing higher levels of academic achievement, career success and psychological wellbeing (Allen & Daly, 2007).

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Family structures of two parents, one female and one male, raising one or more children together in the same household (Okon, 2012; Ratele, Shefer & Clowes, 2012; Walsh, 2003) have been shown by literature (Hlabyago & Ogunbanjo, 2009; Parke, 2003) and statistics (StatsSA, 2010) to have changed in recent years as an increasing number of children have non-

resident fathers. Having an absent father who is not involved in the child's upbringing may be seen as a shortfall in terms of how a family should function (Bronte-Tinkew, Moore, Capps & Zaff, 2006). A significant contributor to this narrative is an assumption that paternal parenting is different from the maternal equivalent (Ratele, Shefer & Clowes, 2012).

In Western culture a father's role has generally evolved to be defined as that of provider, decision-maker, caregiver, role model and disciplinarian (Tessier, Gosselin, Young & Thomassin, 2019), unlike perceptions of his African counterpart as only provider, disciplinarian and protector (Nduna, 2006; Rabe, 2019). Meyer (2017) highlights that, a South African man's great concern towards his family is ensuring that he provides financially and looks after their welfare. In African culture, it is also believed that mothers are less likely to suffer mental health problems or stress when there is an involved father (Richter, Desmond, Hosegood, Madhavan, Makiwane, Makusha, Morrell & Swartz, 2012). According to Lamb (1987), paternal involvement in Western culture consists of accessibility, engagement and responsibility, which in the home not only contributes to the mother's wellbeing and happiness but also shields the child from neglect as mothers may become overburdened, distant and demoralized (Cano & Baxter, 2019; Morman & Floyd, 2002; Rabe, 2019).

In Africa, meanwhile, a study in Botswana by Townsend (2002) concluded that the physical absence of a father is not the cause of unfavourable conditions *per se*, but rather it is the father's lack of financial provision and employment. African men, it is argued, tend to be financially better off than females as they have access to loans, mutual support and influence that may not be readily available to women. In most developing countries, the father has higher financial standing than the mother, an inequality exacerbated by colonialism (Morman & Floyd, 2002; Townsend, 2002). A study by Kramer, Myhra, Zinker and Bauer (2016) found that single mothers get a 30% lower income than single fathers based on their gender.

South Africa's experience of fatherhood has been strongly influenced by history, attributed by Hosegood and Madhavan (2012) to labour migration. For instance, the former apartheid and migrant labour systems of 1948-1994 alienated black fathers from their children, leaving many mothers to raise children alone and sons without a father or role model of how later to be fathers themselves (Grange, 2013). More recently, HIV/AIDS and resultant premature death, coupled with unemployment, poverty and incarceration due to violence against the partner, has compounded the problem (Holborn & Eddy, 2011; Ratele, Shefer & Clowes, 2012). On the other hand, earlier research by Lippman and Wilcox (2003) found that

between 50 and 75% of black children grow up in extended families, in which the dynamics of gender attempt to mirror those of nuclear families, with maternal uncles, grandfathers and older brothers stepping in to fulfil the role of the father by supporting the mother, providing for education and livelihood, and giving paternal love and guidance (Department of Economics Tufts University, 2006; Morrell & Swatz, 2012).

Fathers who are actively involved are perceived as going beyond the role of protector and provider and described as interacting energetically and affectionately with the child for their mutual benefit (Adamsons, 2018; Okeke, 2018; Parke, 2008). Nordahl, Zambrana and Forgatch (2016) add on to say such fathers portray constant monitoring, active problem solving, skill development, encouragement and boundary setting. In contrast, South Africa, according to Richter, Chikovore and Makusha (2010), has some of Africa's lowest rates of marriage and highest percentages of absent fathers, with 50% of men having non-resident children and not seeing them frequently. The effects of uninvolved fathers on children are problematic on several levels as their children run the risk of becoming disadvantaged in terms of educational achievement, employment prospects, teenage pregnancy, behaviour and future relationships (Allen & Daly, 2007; Fazel, 2017; Salmon, Townsend & Hehman, 2016). Fazel (2016) stresses that South African boy children with uninvolved fathers are at a high risk of unemployment and being uninvolved in their own children's lives later in their adult years.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Fatherhood has dominated discussions of researchers worldwide with studies assessing the value of a father's presence in producing healthy psychological and behavioural development of his child (Allen & Daly, 2007; Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2006). It is, however, concerning to note that South Africa ranks second only to Namibia in having the highest number of children without a resident father, reportedly nine million (Frazier, 2015; Makusha & Richter, 2015; Richter et al., 2010). Traditionally, paternal involvement was determined on the basis of the father's presence and the assumption that a non-resident father lacked connection with his child (Hosegood & Madhavan, 2012; Makusha & Richter, 2015; Parke, 2008; Richter & Morrell, 2006).

The notion that the father's involvement consists only of interaction, availability and responsibility collectively is a Western perspective (Richter et al., 2010) and many studies fail to acknowledge that in underdeveloped and developing countries fathers do not go beyond

fulfilling the role of breadwinner (Marsiglio & Cohan, 2000; Morman & Floyd, 2002; Tshweneagae, Mgutshini & Nkosi, 2012). A man is acknowledged and respected on the basis of his ability to financially provide and support his family (Makusha & Richter, 2015), with cultural expectations in the form of payment for damages *(inhlawulo)* and bride price *(bogadi/lobola).* In a context of high rates of unemployment and poverty, such financial demands of high bride price may not be accommodating for men who cannot afford to pay (Makusha & Richter, 2014).

In most rural areas in South Africa, children co-reside with their fathers and form part of the family in both their maternal and paternal households as they move between the two (Hosegood & Madhavan, 2012). Although 50% of men do not physically reside with their children, Morrell, Posel and Devey (2003) report that 61.9% of mothers say that the biological father is actively involved in the financial support of their children, participating with visits, co-residency, quality time spent together or telephonic contact (Makusha & Richter, 2015).

Current literature does not inform what makes African children perceive the father as actively involved in their life. Most studies focus on the Western perspective of an involved father but do not investigate the factors that influence African father's involvement. The present study is qualitative and will explore father involvement from an African perspective, which the literature generally argues is dictated by culture, family structure and parental relationship (Tshweneagae, Mgutshini & Nkosi, 2012). Results are intended to inform policymakers and professionals on financial, cultural and emotional factors that influence father involvement in the country's children, for instance from obligatory naming of the father on the child's birth certificate to encouraging paternity leave and greater family responsibility, (Richter & Morrell, 2006)

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In most international studies, father involvement has been guided by a two-parent dyadic model, however, when fathers and mothers co-reside the mother-father relationship is less likely to predict father-child involvement (Makusha & Richter, 2014). Statistics suggest that significant numbers of children grow up without a father (Centre for Social Development in Africa and Sonke Gender Justice, 2011; Lippman, & Willcox, 2011; StatsSA, 2010). According to Hosegood and Madhavan (2012) and Morrell, Posel and Devey (2003), as there are no paternity histories available from South African household surveys or studies there are

no substantial records of father involvement. There is a gap in knowledge of ways to help families cope with the absence of a father, therefore the purpose of this study is to inform professionals when providing interventions on individual and family therapy from an African child's perspective.

1.5 WORKING ASSUMPTION

The present study was directed by a literature-based assumption of Lamb (1987), that comparison of children's behaviour and personalities based on their being raised by a father or not can simply be made by the process of subtraction. The assumption is that ultimately one can predict the influence a father has on the child's development. The absence of fathers when children grow up is predictive of poor academic achievement, behavioural problems and bleak employment prospects. Booth, Scott and King (2010) propose that close paternal ties with the child predict positive outcomes, whilst for Ratele, Shefer and Clowes (2012) it is not only a father`s physical presence that influences the child's wellbeing and strengthens the bond but also the time he invests in the child.

1.6 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The current study considers the McMaster Model of Family Functioning in exploring how a father's involvement in the African context can be identified within the dimensions of family functioning (Walsh, 2003, p.582), including problem-solving, communication, roles, affective responsiveness, affective involvement and behaviour control. The conceptual framework focuses on the role functioning dimension as it further examines whether the family problems are instrumental or affective (Walsh, 2003), guiding and enforcing boundaries of the roles a father has to fulfil in a family according to the McMaster model.

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current study explores the perception of adolescents concerning father involvement. Based on the above introduction, the primary research question is:

What is father involvement from the perspective of an adolescent child growing up in a semi-urban settlement?

1.7.1 Secondary Research Questions

1. How does an adolescent experience father involvement?

2. Is a father's presence in the home important to the adolescent?
3. Are fathers emotionally more involved with their daughters than with their sons?
4. What is the difference between a father's relationship with his child and that of the mother?

1.8 CENTRAL CONSTRUCTS

The following are central constructs as understood in this study.

1.8.1 Family

The primary role of a 'family' is ultimately to protect a child (Okon, 2012), whilst Lippman and Wilcox (2013) define 'family' as "a group of people linked through blood, marriage or adoption, typically centred on a married couple and their dependents and relatives" (p. 3). Their functions that facilitate this protection are:

- as a source of social support, sometimes an obstacle, to individual and collective achievements
- a unit of economic production and consumption
- an emotional haven that can sometimes be a source of emotional strain
- A vehicle for extending culture across the generations for better and for worse. (Lippman & Wilcox, 2013, p. 3)

Kalil (2003) reported that family units had changed and rearranged in relation to their circumstances, therefore for the purpose of this study the family unit will refer to two parents with a child or children, a caregiver or extended family, acting in the caregiving role.

1.8.2 Father Involvement

'Father involvement' refers to the direct contact with his child through caregiving and shared activities. 'Availability' is a related concept concerning the father's potential availability for interaction, by virtue of being present or accessible to the child, whether or not directly interacting. 'Responsibility' here refers to the role the father plays in ascertaining that the child is taken care of and arranging for resources to be available for him or her (Lamb, Pleck, Charnov & Levine, 1985, p.125).

1.8.3 Household

A ‘household’ in this study will refer to a family as structures which take up a number of forms, for instance, the nuclear family, extended family or single-parent family.

1.8.4 Absent Father

An ‘absent father’ in the study is viewed as one who is not physically present with the child, and/or who is not emotionally or socially accessible. Father absence in South Africa manifests largely in three ways, namely, the father not engaging emotionally with the child; not financially supporting the child; or being partially but not fully present in the child’s life.

1.8.5 Present Father

A ‘present father’ is one who is physically present in the child's life, who engages emotionally and socially, and is financially accessible. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the difference between a present father and an absent father is that the latter is known to the child and mother, who knows of his paternity but evades his responsibilities for not engaging emotionally, socially or financially, whilst the former is one who is physically and/or emotionally, financially and socially accessible.

1.8.6 Semi-Urban Settlement

Statistics South Africa (2003) defines ‘semi-urban settlement’ as an area that is not part of a legally proclaimed urban area but adjoins it. Tembisa, established in 1857, is the second largest settlement following Soweto, with a population of 463,109 recorded in 2011, most of whom live in brick houses or shacks made from corrugated iron and plastic sheets. The township, which was used as the location for my research, has many troubling issues, with most inhabitants being illegal squatters and as such denied access to services such as sewage, electricity, roads and clean water. Amongst other concerns are gang crime, unemployment and lack of adequate formal education.

1.8.7 African Father versus South African Father

An African father in this study is considered to be a man who biologically conceives a child and shares beliefs around masculinity and manhood with other African cultures around

the continent (Meyer, 2017; Richter, Chikovore & Makusha, 2015). These shared ideologies of masculinity and manhood have been discussed later in Section 2.7.8, Chapter 2, p. 46.

A South African father is a man of Bantu descent residing in South Africa who has fathered a child. His distinction to an African father is his level of engagement in fatherhood, which in the context of South Africa is dictated by a number of factors that have been analysed in Section 2.6, Chapter 2, p. 27-37

1.9 RESEARCH METHOD

Mack (2010) has highlighted a link between a researcher's interests, intentions, goals and philosophical assumptions. A paradigm is said to be "a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts or propositions that orient thinking and research" (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006, p. 2), and the general focus is on beliefs and practices as a worldview (Morgan, 2007, as cited in Sefotho, 2014). According to Grix (2004, p. 171), all research takes place within a paradigm, whether explicitly stated or not.

1.9.1 Epistemological Paradigm

The study is based on an epistemological stance that follows the interpretivist paradigm, according to which the researcher seeks to understand a unique person`s worldview (Sefotho, 2014). The choice of interpretivist paradigm in this study over a positivist one is due to its special attention to detail and gaining comprehensive information about the meanings individuals attach to a phenomenon (Tshwane University of Technology, 2012). This allows for the uniqueness of participants and their contexts based on their own personal experiences and subjective meanings given to their wellbeing. The research question is also descriptive and explorative, which leads to an association of an interpretivist paradigm which by nature sets out descriptions and exploration of reasons "why" (Mack, 2010) about the phenomenon.

Another advantage of interpretivism over positivism in a study of this nature is that the researcher has an opportunity to probe the participants' interests and meanings (Tshwane University of Technology, 2012) and predict greater validity in their natural setting, in this study recounting the lives and experiences in their families (Andres, 2012). A shortfall of this paradigm is that it fails to acknowledge that observations and interpretations are products specific to the individual or group context (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006), therefore I cannot generalise the findings to other children in South Africa who do not live in a semi-urban

settlement. Using this paradigm one should be cautious of the meanings one attaches to the phenomenon because interpretivism fails to acknowledge political and ideological influences (Mack, 2010). Observing my presence as part of the study might have resulted in changes in their behaviour (Gephart, 2018; Meares, 2015; Ponterotto, 2005) and as interpretivist studies are regarded as highly subjective I had to be vigilant of allowing my own assumptions and experiences to influence the outcomes (Grix, 2004; Stavraki, 2014). I made sure that a research journal was kept, in which I reflected and bracketed my thoughts, experiences and assumptions. The participants were observed in their natural settings so as not to influence their behaviour. Since Interpretivist researchers focus on gaining insight through exploring individuals' meanings, consideration of each one's specific context, such as the family's socioeconomic status, parental educational level and the family's key process, was looked at as a way of gaining a better understanding of the participants.

1.9.2 Methodological Paradigm

Methodology, according to Sefotho (2014), is a strategy or plan of action which lies behind how researchers choose and use a particular method or methods. The techniques used to discover the reality or knowledge can be through qualitative or quantitative methods, or a mixture of both. This study employed qualitative research methods, often described as attempting to collate significant data that captures a particular phenomenon or content to guide and provide an understanding of what is being investigated (Gephart, 2018). They do this by presenting everyday language and incorporating participants' own words to describe a psychological event, experience or phenomenon (Ponterotto, 2005, p. 128). The study tapped into their thoughts and feelings by means of interviews, and as Maree (2010) advocated, the researcher focussed on how individuals and groups viewed and understood the world and constructed meaning out of experiences. Since the findings cannot be generalised it was beneficial that qualitative research allows for participants' subjective descriptions of their wellbeing.

Qualitative research methods gather rich explanations and descriptions and therefore conveyed a better understanding of what father involvement meant to adolescents and how this experience might be interpreted differently by the participants. Regarding the participants, who had grown up in families with an absent father, it was important to explore interactions among family members (Reeves, Albert, Kuper & Hodge, 2008) and hear their voices rather than categorize them and impose other people`s terms on them (Sofaer, 1999, p. 1105).

Maree (2010) cautions that quality assurance of findings is important but with qualitative research it is not easy to secure a replication of findings. He regards human nature as not being static (Maree, 2010, p. 57), realising that people will not provide the same results each time, which poses a great challenge because it compromises the reliability and validity of findings. As a result, in order to enhance validity an external coder was consulted to verify the results (Maree, 2010). For Trustworthiness, findings were crystallized through interviews with the participants.

1.9.3 Research Design: Case Study

Case studies are of qualitative and quantitative nature, depending on the underlying philosophical assumptions of the researcher (Maree, 2010). Subscribing to an interpretivist epistemological stance, this is an inductive descriptive case study (Willig, 2008) which investigated and explained all aspects of the phenomenon and how they were connected (Levy, 2008). It examined how adolescents think about father involvement through an in-depth, intensive exploration of natural occurrences (Willig, 2008). As Creswell & Creswell (2018) assert, individuals attach subjective meanings to their experiences that allow researchers to look for the complexity of views. This initiative helped in understanding each individual case in its own distinctiveness (Yin, 1984) and allowed for new insights and understanding about father involvement in Africa (Willig, 2008). Researchers who employ case studies approach a case from a number of different perspectives (Zucker, 2009) and this triangulation of data collection provided the study with rich sets of data that were used to validate each other.

Situations can stimulate thoughts and feelings which may not have otherwise been experienced (Agarwal, 2018;), especially if participants are being interviewed. It may happen that a participant is affected in less desirable ways, therefore appropriate forms of support, such as consulting a supervisor to intervene, were necessary. Finally, during validation of the data gathered a participant may view the researcher as an expert and consider his or her interpretations as correct rather than as suggestions that can be evaluated and challenged (Willig, 2008; Yin 1984). To overcome this shortcoming, the researcher sought constant validation through means of paraphrasing and probing (Maree, 2010) and discrepancies between responses by the participant indicated that participant validation was not as genuine as it was supposed to be.

1.9.4 Unit of Analysis

The case was the adolescent experience of father involvement (Thomas, 2019), within the context of semi-urban settlements. The focus was on the father's interaction, availability and responsibility as the unit of analysis, comprising three cases that made it a multiple inductive case study.

1.9.5 Research Context

South African families in semi-urban settlements often face many adversities relative to other families (Hamann, Mkhize & Gotz, 2018) with, for instance, an increasing number of children growing up in single-parent homes without fathers. Participants were selected from the same community, characterised by underdevelopment and considered a semi-urban living area. The participants were high school children in the age range 14-18 years, of black race. The researcher had recently been involved in community engagement as part of an internship which required conducting psychoeducational talks and training with parents and teachers, as well as character-building talks with learners.

Client files compiled during the research, consisting of observations, field notes and transcriptions, were kept securely with the researcher until all data had been collected. They were then taken to the Department of Educational Psychology on Groenkloof Campus, Pretoria. The participants and their families provided informed consent to participate in the study as well as consent that information derived from the psychological interventions might be used in future research projects similar to the present one.

1.9.6 Sampling

A research invitation pamphlet was handed out to all grade nine learners and those who showed interest in taking part were contacted. Two participants were initially sampled using purposive sampling, a popular strategy in the qualitative paradigm that identifies participants based on a selective criterion (Mackay, Woodsong, McQueen, Guest & Namey, 2005).

1.9.7 Data Collection Procedures

Once the participants had been identified, semi-structured interviews were conducted with them as these allowed the researcher to prompt them in line with the research topic. Data collection proceeded during the interviews through audio recordings, preferred to visual

recordings with which the participants might not have felt entirely comfortable or relaxed (O'Reilly, M. & Dogra, 2017). To reduce any other uncomfortable feelings, the participant might have experienced I explained why the recording was being made and how it was going to help the study and its findings (O'Reilly, M. & Dogra, 2017; Willig, 2008). Recording the interview also allowed me to interact and engage with the interviewees in conversation, thus strengthening the rapport and trust (Zainal, 2007). Listening to tapes can be time-consuming but it helped to transcribe the conversations and read over them to identify themes using thematic analysis (Maree, 2010).

1.9.8 Data Sources

Data sources of semi-structured interviews and a focus group discussion were then analysed.

1.9.9 Data Analysis

Data analysis refers to a process in which patterns, trends and topics in data are identified and categorised accordingly (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Based on the epistemological paradigm informing the current study, qualitative data analysis was performed to examine the meaning and symbolic content, an inductive method that allowed findings to be obtained from significant themes inherent in the raw data (Maree, 2010, p. 99), for instance, thematic analysis for the interview transcripts. With the aim of organising data and easy retrieval each participant was given an identification number and assigned a folder as a data set, consisting of the interview transcript, research notes and observation notes made during data collection. The data was[1] then transcribed and items separated, forming new data sets containing interview transcripts, research notes and observation notes, all of which were put into folders and labelled according to when, where and how they had been collected (Maree, 2010, p. 104).

Interview transcripts were coded using open coding and themes identified containing patterns of responses in the data set, each having a meaning and bearing relation to the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Prevalence of a theme was determined by the number of participants who had expressed it and, as I worked through the data and coded it, any impressions and insights were written down (Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002) before, during and

[1] Although 'data' is the Latin plural of datum it is generally treated as an uncountable 'mass' noun and so takes a singular verb (*Concise Oxford English Dictionary*, 2011, Eds. Stevenson & Waite).

after analysis, in a researcher journal (Braun & Clarke, 2006). To determine theory saturation, I re-read the data in an active way, searching for new meanings, patterns and insights to a point when nothing new emerged (Bowen, 2008). I could then ensure that the study had reached theoretical saturation, that is, the point at which no further useful data could be collected.

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In line with ethical guidelines and rules, issues such as confidentiality, autonomy and non-maleficence had to be considered throughout the research study (see Section 3.7.1, Chapter 4, p. 70 for greater detail). Participants' identities were protected by use of pseudonyms and their signing a consent form giving permission for me to perform the interviews and pledging that any information obtained would not be shared with anyone. In the case of talking to someone who might be suffering abuse by the father or have been abused by him I informed the parents and escalated it to the relevant authorities. Each of the participants was allocated a unique number in line with the strategy I used to analyse the data. For access to the research site and recording of data, the researcher sought ethical clearance from the Department of Education, the Faculty of Education Ethics committee of the University of Pretoria and the permission of the secondary school from whom participants were recruited. I also adhered to the Children`s Act when working with participants and followed the rules governing the University of Pretoria. I adhered to Children's Act 38 of 2005 that upholds a child's right to privacy and the protection of personal information.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The world continues to experience changes in patterns of family structures as there are high numbers of children born out of wedlock and growing up in single parent homes, due to such circumstances as divorce, illness and high bride price and further resulting in concerns for the children's wellbeing (Culpin, Heron, Araya, & Joinson, 2015; Huang, Kim, Sherraden, & Clancy, 2017; Parke, 2003). Families from different countries are configured differently, according to geography, context and culture (Okon, 2012) and single-parent families have become the norm in the last 50 years, a trend more prevalent among Africans, African Americans and Hispanics (Parke, 2003). According to Denny, Brewton-Tiayon, Lykke and Milkie (2014), this may be the result of father involvement having changed in essence over the years.

A father's work, social norms and maternal gatekeeping used to be blamed for low father involvement (Denny et al., 2014; Murray, 1980; Nduna & Jewkes, 2011; Ratele, Shefer & Clowes, 2012). However, a broader perspective has been adopted by Denny et al. (2014) who argue that studies and literature have neglected and failed to explore fathers' character and leisure pursuits as factors that also contribute to their involvement, in addition to negative ones such as laziness, disinterest, selfishness, spending time with friends and general busyness.

In South Africa, gauging father involvement has become particularly problematic owing to familial complexities and financial and cultural constrictions. The current economic climate has resulted in high rates of unemployment and poverty whilst cultural expectations include the groom paying bride price and damages, and poor, unemployed, unmarried and non-resident fathers not being able to be involved in their children's lives (Makusha & Richter, 2015). A survey conducted by the South African Broadcasting Commission (SABC, 2015) indicated that half of the African children had living fathers who were not part of their lives. Due to South Africa's experiences of fatherhood being strongly influenced by a relatively recent history of mining and industrialisation, there have been changes in family structures and the disintegration of certain values and tradition (Clark, Cotton & Marteleto, 2015; Coovadia, Jewkes, Barron, Sanders & McIntyre, 2009; Hall & Posel, 2019;). Fathers have traditionally been seen, and to some extent are still viewed, as being the provider over being the nurturer

(Denny et al., 2014). Based on Denny et al.'s (2014) work, fathers who actively play a role in their children's lives even go beyond being protector and provider and are often described as demonstrating a level of interaction, availability and responsibility (Goldberg, 2015; Morrell, Possel & Devey, 2008).

2.2 CONCEPTUALISING FATHER INVOLVEMENT

In this section the topic of father involvement from different perspectives will be explored. The focus is on contextualising what an absent father is then the factors that constitute the preferences of father involvement in South Africa. It is followed by negative and positive outcomes associated with it. Finally, the conceptual framework applied throughout the study will be considered.

2.2.1 Analysis of Absent fathers in the South African context

In many South Africa homes, the fathers have lost their crucial role within the family (Fazel, 2017). To try and understand this phenomenon of South Africa having the highest rates in Africa, Ratele et al. (2012, p. 557) undertook a study in which the child participants described the role of their father as "being there." The knowledge related to fathers spending quality time and having relationships with them, rather than only assigning primacy to physical presence. The study gave rise to the assumption that biological fathers are not the only males who can "be there" for the child, particularly the boy child, as other male adults can step into the role of absent father-social father. Padi et al. (2014) sustain this notion and argue that when talking about absent fathers who refuse to meet their paternal obligations, those who do not know they have fathered a child or the mother denies them access are reasons many extended family members step in as a father figure (Hogans & Williams, 2018; Ratele et al., 2012). Extended family members provide shelter, help the mother financially and influence the child's social and emotional development (Hognas & Williams, 2017). In some instances, fathers feel inferior to women who earn bigger salaries or are the only parent earning an income and therefore use this to evade their paternal responsibilities (Fazel, 2017).

Often, studies focus on non-resident fathers as uninvolved but fail also to label those who have absconded from the house for months and evade the issue of divorce, separation, incarceration or regular business travel. Absent fathers differ from undisclosed fathers because their identity is known to the child and mother, and the mother does not give false information

about them (Atobrah, 2004; Lippman & Wilcox, 2003; Makusha & Richter, 2015; Padi et al., 2014). The term 'absent father' subsumes many factors pertaining to the father's reasons for being uninvolved, as illustrated throughout this Chapter. However, Padi et al. (2014) caution that the term, along with 'unknown father' and 'undisclosed father,' differ significantly in the South African context, because some children do not know where their father is or where he resides, and thus do not have any relationship with them. These terms are used interchangeably in academia, though Atobrah (2004) defined 'unknown fathers' more specifically:

> 1) A father who left or died when the child was young and the child has no recollection of him.
> 2) A mother or guardian of the child who does not know or has doubts about the identity or the name of the child's father.
> 3) A mother who is unwilling to divulge the father's name because of official registration issues.

Padi et al. (2014, p. 75) explain that sometimes the child may have an assumption who their father might be but are not sure with certainty. Therefore, scholars are advised that when referring to 'unknown fathers' they specify the meaning, with a clear indication as to whether the father is 'unknown' to the child, mother or father. The term 'not knowing' also needs to be defined because it could easily be interpreted as not knowing the father's name or whereabouts, not knowing of his existence or not having a close relationship with him.

2.2.2 Introduction to Father Involvement

Father involvement has changed over the previous 20 years in terms of frequency as well as the reasons for it (Denny et al., 2014). Fathers now invest more time with the child, engage more in recreational activities with them and build strong father-child bonds (Cano & Baxter, 2019; Chi, Lee and Tsang, 2016; Koppen, Kreyenfeld & Trappe, 2018). Chi, Lee and Tsang (2016) recognise this change in father' s level of involvement as fathers becoming more nurturing. Fathers are perceived as feeling pressure to be more involved in the lives of their children and afford mothers the opportunity to develop their skills and earn themselves an income (Cano & Baxter, 2019). The shift in father involvement recognizes that fathers are often directly involved in childrearing, such as having a much higher frequency of father-child interaction than previously (Okeke, 2018). According to Chui, Lee, and Tsang (2016), fathers now do the nurturing and caregiving, emotionally supporting and offering practical advice to

the mother and they continue to be the moral compass and disciplinarian for the child (Tessier, Gosselin, Young & Thomassin, 2019).

Fathering has come to be defined largely by economic contributions (breadwinning) (Meyer, 2017) whilst Salami and Okeke, (2018) have noted that fathers lost their role as defenders against adverse conditions and educators because many children had absent fathers. This may have been because fatherhood is an experience to which men react differently, not always willingly accepting it (Denny et al., 2014; Morrell et al., 2008). Factors such as behavioural and affective dimensions, as well as cognitive elements, influence a father's bond with his child or lack of it. The father needs to be open to constantly learning and accept that his life will be reorganized as he enters fatherhood (Matlakalala, Makhubele & Mashilo, 2018).

The concept of father involvement increases in complexity when viewed across culture, race, social class and level of education (Dral, Tolani, Smet & van Luijn, 2018). For Denny et al. (2014) it may be perceived as a father taking a child camping, to the zoo, or to a farm. Ineffective father involvement would then apply when the father is not home from work to tuck his child into bed, or is not supporting the mother in the upkeep of their child. It has been hypothesised that poor, ineffective or distant fathering behaviours build the foundation for children who are dysfunctional, contentious and emotionally distant in relationships (Morman & Floyd, 2002; Salmon, Townsend & Hehman, 2016). It is observed that early stress in the child's childhood, because of an absent father, results in accelerated puberty and promiscuity in girls and boys struggle with regulating their emotions (Salmon, Townsend & Hehman, 2016). According to Thupayagale-Tshweneagae et al. (2012), the traditional discourse of father involvement favours the views of white middle-class families, including a nuclear family comprising mother, father and children. They believe that a father-child relationship should be defined by scholars, focusing on the contributions that culture, social class, family structure and parental relationships make.

2.2.3 Factors Associated with Father Involvement

Father involvement has previously been determined based on the father's presence in the home or his absence (Adamsons, 2018; Cano & Baxter, 2019; Okeke, 2018). However, as industrialization took place fathers became less common in the home, causing Lamb, Pleck, Charnov and Levine (1985) to quantify father involvement as three major components, namely, behavioural measures such as (i) talking, touching and feeding); (ii) how the father talks to the

child; and (iii) whether he uses positive or negative emotions, for example, joy, interest and curiosity, or anger, rejection and criticism respectively. The following dimensions have been identified by Tamis-LeMonda and Cabrera (1999) and Goldberg (2015):

- *Engagement*: the father's direct contact with his child through caregiving, recreational activities and leisure
- *Accessibility*: a related concept concerning the father's availability for interaction, by means of being present or accessible to the child whether or not direct interaction is occurring.
- *Responsibility*: the role the father takes on in ascertaining that the child is taken care of and arranging for resources to be available for it. He does this by providing finances, planning and organising their lives, protecting and guiding, and emotionally supporting.

Despite these dimensions, defining father involvement without being biased in favour of one culture, social class, race or level of education remains problematic (Thupayagale-Tshweneagae et al., 2012; Hewlett, 2000; Hunter, 2007). As described above, Lamb, Pleck, Charnov and Levine's (1985) widely used components of father involvement were originally based on Western, middle-class communities and did not favour non-resident fathers (Salami & Okeke, 2018). More recent studies indicate that trends show both resident and non-resident fathers can be effectively involved in their children's lives (Adamsons, 2018; Coates & Phares, 2019; Guarin & Meyer, 2018; Okeke, 2018).

There are no set measures to determine father involvement of non-resident fathers as studies used to measure the quality of fathering are based on hours spent with the child (Salami & Odeke, 2018). According to Adamsons (2018), contact or time spent together does not benefit children and is irrelevant as there are a variety of child outcomes for children with resident fathers. The argument by current researchers is that conditions in which time is spent with the child contributes to positive father involvement (Adamsons, 2018; Guarin & Meyer, 2018), and Adamsons (2018) further explains their perception by saying that a father can spend hours with a child but demonstrate poor parenting strategies, not have a close bond and not be warm, whereas another father might not spend as much time with it but engage in a warm manner, have a close relationship and practice considerate and positive discipline strategies.

Non-resident fathers are hindered from being active participants in their children's upbringing because of their relationship with the mother, economic resources and background

(Koppen, Kreyenfeld & Trappe, 2018). Studies point to familial relationships that existed during apartheid as having impacted on African counterparts more than contemporary lifestyles and current economic conditions (Okeke, 2018). Nevertheless, current social policies on fatherhood and father involvement try to help maintain the father-child bond, with research finding a positive correlation with regular child maintenance, visitation rights, legal custody, and parenting plans (Fazel, 2017; Guarin & Meyer, 2018; Koppen et al., 2018).

Marsiglio, Day and Lamb (2000, p. 276) attempt to conceptualise fathers' involvement by emphasising the affective, consistent and varying ways of engaging in their children's lives, a definition that is challenging and makes scholars wish to understand the determinants. As such, Parke (2008) offered a framework which emphasises four levels of determinants, namely, individual, familial, extra-familial, and cultural, with each having multiple components.

A systems view of determinants of father involvement encompasses several *individual influences*, a significant one being the man's attitude, his values of fatherhood, the close bond he has with his family of origin and the time and life stage at which he becomes a father (Parke, 2008). For Volke (2014), previous and present beliefs about fathering affect father competence in childcare tasks and influence his child-rearing goals, as these have the potential ultimately to affect his engagement with the child. Men who identify themselves as fathers have often also experienced positive and affective involvement from their own fathers (Çetin, 2015).

A large body of prior studies suggested that fathers of boy children were more involved because of the gender of their child (Çetin, 2015; Raley & Bianchi, 2006; Harris, Furstenberg, & Mamer, 1998; Parke & Neville, 1995). However, more recent studies discredit the correlation (Idenmudia, Maepa & Moamogwe, 2016; Hamoudi & Nobles, 2014). Therefore, it is hypothesized that the gender of the child does not predict father involvement alone but rather that other factors should also be explored. A study by Cooney et al. (1993) divided fathers into three groups, determined by fatherhood onset. "Early fathers" were males who became fathers at the ages of 17 to 23, followed by "on-time fathers" at the ages of 24 to 29 and "late fathers" at the age of 30 plus. The study found that late father's involvement was higher than on-time and early fathers, and concluded that they were better educated and married to older, mature and also educated wives, having longer marriage duration than the other categories. These findings suggest that fathers are more willing to tackle the challenges of being a father when they are older and sufficiently mature to re-evaluate their lives and adjust accordingly, with a

supportive, more appealing and relatively well-educated working partner (Adamsons, 2018; Cano & Baxter, 2019; Koppen et al., 2018;).

Familial influences, whether *dyadic* or *triadic*, also have an impact on the father's involvement level, with relationships including mother-child, father-child, husband-wife, and father-mother-child. Cetin (2015) believes that "fathers who are more satisfied with their marriage and whose wives support and perceive them as competent parents, are found to be more involved more in their children's lives," and the majority of studies suggest that more flexible and non-traditional gender roles of men and women are a platform for father involvement, whereas more traditional gender roles of fathers result in less interest and weaker attitude (Akpor, Bello & Irinoye, 2018; Coley & Morris, 2002; Cooney, Pedersen, Indelicato, & Palkovitz, 1993; Jaga, Arabandi, Bagraim, & Mdlongwa, 2018; Parke & Neville, 1995; Updegraff, McHale, & Crouter, 1996, Van Holland De Graaf, Hoogenboom, De Roos & Bucx, 2018). A study done by Van Holland De Graaf, Hoogenboom, De Roos and Bucx (2018) shows that mothers and fathers are starting to spend equal time in caretaking, have similar roles and behaviours when it comes to parenting.

A study by Holmes and Huston (2010) of the influence of mother-child relationship on that of father-child reported that a good former one inadvertently affected the latter. Mothers sometimes deny the father access to the child because they believe that they are more competent at providing for the child (Fazel, 2017). Other mothers feel that it is their right to protect their child from the harmful impact the father will have on their child due to their aggressiveness and lack of responsibility (Gibbs, Cranskshaw, Lewinsohn, Chirawn & Willan, 2017). Some mothers re-partner, which Koppen et al. (2018) believe lessens the chances of the father being affectively involved with the child as the new relationship demands time investment, thus creating time constraints and interfering with the bonding time the child has with the father. Guarin and Meyer (2018) write that fathers also sometimes feel they are being replaced in the child's life by the mother's new romantic partner.

The child's age has been seen by Koppen, Kreyenfeld & Trappe (2018) as well as Sogkal, Ozdemir and Koruklu (2018) as contributing towards a father's involvement, which during the early stages of life is to provide for the physical and health needs as well as ensure formal education and give guidance. As children grow older, those of school-going age engage in activities and establish peer relationships that keep them preoccupied and divert their attention from their relationship with a father who may be not present in the home (Yeager,

2017; Beyens, Frison, Eggermont, 2016). On reaching adolescence they have become more independent of their parents and have greater interest in peer relations, striving to achieve their future aspirations and managing school demands and social life (McLean & Syed, 2015). According to Koppen et al. (2018), a long-lasting separation of mother and father without the latter seeing the child increases the probability of his remaining absent indefinitely. However, adolescents are capable of arranging meetings with their non-resident fathers if they feel he is not present in their lives (Gibbs et al., 2017).

External familial influences include the relationship with relatives, such as grandparents, extended family members, a father accepted by the mother's parents as well as neighbours (Çetin, 2015). Relationships with relatives ultimately influence a child's involvement with the father because in African culture a child is raised and guided by the community (Nduna & Jewkes, 2011). An African child who lives in a community in which *Ubuntu* prevails will not experience the significant lack of father presence. (Theron, Theron & Malindi, 2012). Such a child is consumed in a community network that provides support and care either directly or through the family.

Levetan & Wild (2015) found it common for children to live with an extended family in which the maternal kin control access. Hognas and William (2017) say that the maternal family is the one that sometimes assumes the gatekeeping. and their acceptance or rejection of the father determines the sustainability or elimination of him and his role towards his paternal responsibility towards the child (Summer, 2012, p, 4, as cited in Çetin, 2015). There is also a role for 'social fathers' who care for the child's upbringing and wellbeing as well as compensate for any negative effects that may arise from the biological father's absenteeism (Kamau & Davies, 2018). According to Ellerbe, Jones and Carlson (2018), a social father may be an uncle, grandfather, older brother or the mother's partner who automatically assumes the role of father, inadvertently lessening pressure on the absent father to care for his child.

Institutional circumstances, such as the father's working hours and nature of work, influence accessibility and involvement with the child. Fathers with high profile jobs are considered not to be easily accessible as they work long hours and therefore have less contact with their children (Lewinsohn, Crankshaw, Tomlinson, Gibbs, Butler & Smit, 2018). This view is supported by Çetin, (2015) who found that fathers who work under stressful conditions spend less time and interact less with their children. In addition, a father's place of work may

also influence his motivation for seeking paternity leave and flexible working hours (Çetin, 2015).

A number of *cultural influences* on father involvement include childhood cultures of boys and girls, opinions about gender roles and ethnicity-related values and norms (Nduna, 2006; Nduna & Jewkes, 2011). Cultures differ in what they associate with father-child attachment, some regarding vigorous and 'rough and tumble' play as active engagement, whereas others may focus on regular warmth, communication and the child regularly being physically held (Hewlett, 2000; Lansford, Godwin, Alampay, Uribe Tirado, Zelli, Al-Hassan, Bacchini, Bombi, Bornstein, Chang, Deater-Deckard, Di Giunta, Dodge, Malone, Oburu, Pastorelli, Skinner, Sorbring, & Tapanya, 2016). African fathers perceive their role as being the financial provider, whilst the mother has the responsibility for looking after the social wellbeing (Eddy, de-Boor & Mphaka, 2013). For the purposes of this study, father involvement is not defined exclusively using proximal, emotional, active participation or financial lines, but rather a combination of these factors.

2.3 POSITIVE OUTCOMES ASSOCIATED WITH FATHER INVOLVEMENT

Greene, Galambos and Lee (2003) describe protective factors in father involvement as circumstances that negate, interrupt or prevent problems. A father's involvement is a protective factor as he prevents a child from failing or dropping out, from spoiling future prospects, and from problematic behaviour (Allen & Daly, 2007; Ancell, Bruns & Chitiyo, 2018; Forgarty & Evans, 2009; Kristin, Imac & Marion, 2016). He is able to do this because, as an African father, he is seen as and given the role of disciplinarian and provider of advice in difficult situations (Forgarty & Evans, 2009). This is backed up by Allen and Daly (2007), who write that children with high levels of father involvement are more likely to find pleasure in going to school, therefore tend not to be expelled or suspended. In the South African context, academic success is seen as a measure of resilience.

Mothers with male partners who are present and actively participating in the child's life are reported not to experience stressors or suffer from psychopathological illnesses but rather to enjoy motherhood (Richter et al., 2012). Involved fathers and social fathers who offer the mother practical and emotional support, enhance mother-child relationship and establish safety from harm and neglect of an overburdened mother (Alio, 2017; Makusha & Richter 2018; Allen & Daly, 2007). Makusha and Richter (2018) explain that fathers play a crucial role of being

emotional supporters, material providers in the early years of a child to reduce the risk of the mother experiencing postpartum depression (2018). According to Kamau and Davies (2018), sometimes social fathers collectively care for the child's upbringing and wellbeing, therefore blocking any negative effects that may arise from the father's absence.

Fathers instil and reinforce strong spiritual and kinship values in their children when *Ubuntu* or *Botho* transpires (Nduna, 2014), as these encourage tolerance and respect for the community and fellow human beings. Consequently, the assumption is that a child growing up in such an environment values forgiveness, respect and prayer, rewarding them with a support system (Theron, Theron & Malindi, 2012). According to Jessee & Adamsons (2018), father involvement produces male children who are not as aggressive, who have a fair level of competitiveness and are emotionally free to express their feelings as they are aware of their emotions and address them in a healthy, effective manner. Children with involved fathers have less emotional distress and fewer expressions of negative emotion, such as fear and guilt (Okeke, 2018). They demonstrate resilience, good problem-solving and adaptive skills and self-regulation (Allen & Daly, 2007), and overall demonstrate a great internal locus of control as they manage their emotions and impulses in an adaptive manner (Keshavarz & Baharundin, 2013).

2.4 EFFECTS OF LACK OF FATHER INVOLVEMENT ON CHILDREN

Berger and McLanahan (2015) and Carlson (2006) highlight that economic resources contribute to difference in behaviours of one- and two-parent children, as they are prone to experiencing depression and anxiety together with internalizing and externalizing emotions. According to Berger and McLanahan, (2015) two parent families have more household income; are able to provide the child with high quality parenting that include both warmth, responsiveness, affection, support, discipline and skills development because they parent collaboratively. However, Allen and Daly (2007) are much more concerned with the time of exit by a father on the child's social-emotional wellbeing. They argue that each life stage has different manifestations displayed by children.

2.4.1 Preschool

Children in the preschool stage of life are highly self-centred and feel that when bad things happen it is because of them so they blame themselves and view the departure of the father as personal rejection (Anderson, 2000; Encyclopaedia of Children's Health, 2006).

2.4.2 School going age

At school going age children are aware of intense pain caused by the departure of a parent (Walsh, 2016), externalizing or internalizing their hurt with boy children mourning the loss of their fathers (Keshavarz & Baharundin, 2013; Nduna & Jewkes, 2011). Such children are unable to manage their frustration levels effectively, lack problem-solving and adaptive skills and struggle with impulsivity and managing their emotions in an appropriate manner (Allen & Daly, 2007), often displaying poor peer relations and tending to be negative, aggressive and prone to conflict (Kamau & Davies, 2018). Carlson (2006) cautions that behavioural problems during childhood and early adolescence are highly predictive of educational failure. According to Allen and Daly (2007), many children with absent fathers struggle academically as they perform poorly on achievement and intelligence tests. They also experience behavioural problems, fail to pay attention at school, are disobedient and run the risk of being suspended or expelled (Allen & Daly, 2007).

2.4.3 Adolescence

Frazier (2015) highlights that 63% of youth are from fatherless homes and more than a third of the country's prisoners are aged 18 to 25 years. Adolescents usually react to a father's absence and lack of involvement with anger, accompanied by a significant diminution in their ability to learn caused by anxiety, restlessness, failure to concentrate and intrusive thoughts about the loss or abandonment (Allen & Daly, 2007; Ancell, Bruns, & Chitiyo, 2018; Cano & Baxter, 2019; Kristin, Imac & Marion, 2016). These intrusive thoughts are constant and can lead to a drop in school performance and difficulties with classmates. According to Allen and Daly (2007) such children are:

- more likely to drop out of school
- twice as likely to repeat a grade
- less likely to graduate from high school
- more likely to complete fewer years of schooling
- less likely to enrol in college

- more likely to drop out of school and struggle to maintain a job in their mid-20s

These negative factors are doubly unfortunate as many poor families in the current economic climate of high-unemployment aspire to academic achievement as a means of escaping the poverty cycle (Cano & Baxter, 2019).

Not having a father to learn from about manhood and masculinity has an effect on the boy child's social functioning and they fall victim to unemployment and incarceration (Fazel, 2017). Allen and Daly (2007) go on to further explain that adolescent boys who live without their fathers often fall victim of having no good internal moral judgement or sense of guilt after transgressions, refusing to accept accountability for their actions and struggling to conform to rules. Salami and Okeke (2018) write that adolescent boys who grow up without a father present in their lives are prone to displays of emotional instability. The adolescent is likely to see the world as hostile and unwelcoming and instigate psychological maladjustments, such as depression (Richardson, La Guardia & Klay, 2018; Rostad, Medina & Hurtig-Crosby, 2007). Lack of father involvement may be experienced as rejection by the adolescent and may set perceptions of acceptance or rejection by other social fathers (Rostad, Medina & Hurtig-Crosby, 2007).

In contrast, Mott, Kowaleski-Jones and Mehaghan (1997) found that adolescent girls are more likely to cheat on partners, whilst Salami and Okeke (2018) claimed they are prone to lie and feel no remorse for misbehaviour, engage in risky sexual behaviour and struggle to form and keep relationships. Salmon, Townsen and Heliman (2016) highlight that adolescent girls who grow up in families where the father is not involved engage in sexual acts earlier and have multiple sexual partners due to lack or resources and high levels of stress at home. They associate lack of father involvement with early puberty, earlier sexual engagement and teenage pregnancy. Kamau and Davies (2018) write that girls who lack father involvement often encounter significant problems when choosing appropriate romantic partners and often are unhappy and dissatisfied in relationships. Girls have a better moral standing when their father is present in their life because he instils desirable values, according to Fazel (2017).

Adolescents tend to grapple with identity-related tasks in this particular life stage (Erikson, 1963) and therefore have many concerns related to how they construct their character as such, the argument is that it is important for adolescents to have involved fathers in their upbringing to help them when they are experiencing relationship problems and general life challenges, because they struggle to control their impulses and want instant gratification with

regards to anger and sexual desires, and they have a weaker sense of right and wrong (Dral, Tolani, Smet & van Luijn, 2018; Fazel, 2017; Matlakala et al, 2018). Furthermore, a study by Lindegger (2006) revealed that adolescents can be abused by their mother's partner causing them to long to have their biological father present to treat them better.

2.5 INTERNATIONAL AND SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES ON FATHER INVOLVEMENT

International research has portrayed father involvement as tending to be dictated by a two-parent dyadic model, in which the father is present in the home (Makusha & Richter, 2014). However, Thupayagale-Tshweneagae, Mgutshini and Nkosi (2012) argue that father involvement is governed by culture, family structure and parental relationship, with contributions made by fathers in the upbringing and caregiving of their children differing from one country to another. Denny et al. (2014) stress the importance of recognising that African fathers and their children's interpersonal relationship are determined by the effort of the father, whether he is residential or non-residential, denying paternity or evading paternal obligation. This is because South African fathers were previously labelled as physically and emotionally absent (Rabe, 2019)

Hosegood and Madhavan (2012, p. 265) point out that descriptions of father involvement in South African surveys are predominantly concerned with whether the child has access to the father, which Okeke, (2018) considers as a factor entrenched in the legacy of apartheid, that interrupted normal family life and saw a burgeoning of the number of non-resident fathers. Access to the child is dependent on the father being alive and co-residing with them (Hosegood & Madhavan, 2012, p. 265) but the reality of most South African families is that mothers and fathers do not co-reside so the mother-father relationships are less likely to predict father-child involvement (Makusha & Richter, 2014). The longer the separation of the mother-father relationship without the father seeing the child, predicts a higher probability of the father remaining absent and uninvolved indefinitely, because he might find it difficult to identify his paternal identity over time (Koppen et al., 2018).

Statistics indicate that half of South African children have fathers who are alive but not present in their household, according to a survey by the South African Broadcasting Commission (2015). South Africa's experiences of fatherhood have been strongly influenced by history. Therefore, it is not known with certainty the number of fathers there are in the

country as well as the level of participation in their children's lives (Richter & Morell, 2006; Hosegood & Madhavan, 2012). However most black fathers have some form of connection with their children, be it co-residency, financial provision, physical or telephonic contact, or emotional involvement (Richter, Chikovore & Makusha, 2010; Richter et al., 2012; Thupayagale-Tshweneagae et al., 2012).

According to Western culture, having a form of a link would not equate to father involvement as that comprises accessibility, responsibility and engagement (Golberg, 2015; Hewlett, 2000; Parke, 2008), rendering significant social and emotional outcomes as the child grows older and enters adulthood (Cano & Baxter, 2019). For instance, American fathers are concerned with their children acquiring high-quality education and acumen to survive the US labour market, so they work on building close bonds with their children, enhancing their confidence and making sure they provide for a mentally stimulating environment. Still in America, fathers have taken the role of being the primary caregiver as a stay home dad (Carvalho, 2016). Fathers from the United Kingdom take pride in influencing the child's development as they actively engage in childcare.

However, in some cultures fathers are emotionally cut off from their children but the children still flourish mentally and are physically healthy (Hewlett, 2000). A suggestion made by Horvath, Lee & Bax (2015) and Volke (2014) was that paternal goals for children are largely determined and influenced by demographic and ecological factors, for example, Kipsigis fathers in Kenya and Tanzania, whose paternal role and concern is for caring for the physical survival of the child in a context of high infant mortality, between 10 and 20 percent. These fathers stressed their economic role with focus on providing clothing and food, paying for the school fees and medical bills, extending to morality coach and teacher of defence, respect and obedience. This bears a resemblance to the concerns of South African fathers in a time of high unemployment and poverty rates. Central and Eastern African fathers are focused on migration, pastoral farming and foraging as efforts to provide for their children however it is observed that such communities have low levels of father involvement (Carvalho, 2016)

Dral, Tolani, Smet and van Luijin (2018) indicate that women in some African countries are not in the habit of taking contraceptive measures and therefore there are many unwanted pregnancies, at times used by the father to evade his paternal responsibilities and claim that the mother should be responsible for her fertility (Gibbs et al., 2017). In line with lack of father involvement, South Africa has many teenage fathers under the age of 20 who are challenged

with identity formation and being an adult. Therefore, since fatherhood is a delicate stage for a man to re-evaluate and reorganize his life, teen fathers become anxious and overwhelmed by the newly assigned responsibility of being a father and stay away (Matlakala et al., 2018).

A reason for some fathers evading paternity is hegemonic masculinity, prominent in African communities as men keep multiple concurrent partners to whom they are not committed (Okeke, 2018; Morrell & Richter, 2006), and children for whom they feel no obligation of care (Guarin & Meyer, 2018). As a means of release, some African fathers then consume high levels of alcohol to try and forget about their poor economic status and financial inability to care for themselves and their family. This results in him neglecting his responsibilities or not being able to function as expected of one with his social capacity (Okeke, 2018).

Lastly, it is important for scholars and the general public to be aware that most previous bodies of literature on father involvement, whether from Western or African literature, are based on results of female researchers and accounts of mothers, often portraying fathers negatively (Okeke, 2018, Cano & Baxter, 2019).

2.6 FACTORS AFFECTING FATHER INVOLVEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

A number of factors that impact on father involvement in South Africa, including historical, social and cultural, will be explored in this section.

2.6.1 Historical Factors

A father has traditionally played a fundamental role in an African child's life, and in most African societies he confers a child's social identity by giving him or her a name and performing rituals to ensure their security and wellbeing (Nduna & Jewkes, 2011) and most of the parenting practices South African fathers develop from the different ethnic groups in the country (Rabe, 2019) The father is responsible for performing sacrificial rituals to introduce the new-born to the family kin, as well as introduce it to a clan of ancestors. A boy's father, uncles and other male community leaders played a significant role as custodians of the tradition of initiating boy children, helping their boy children enter manhood by taking them through a series of African tradition rituals which, upon completion, acknowledged his status as manhood (Nduna & Jewkes, 2011; Coovadia, Jewkes, Barron, Sanders & McIntyre, 2009). An important

ritual involved sending boys away to the mountains or forest, usually at the age of 18, to an initiation school and, on their return, expecting them to omit boyish behaviour and assume adult behaviour (Coovadia et al., 2009; Nduna & Jewkes, 2011).

A man's role was not limited to educating his children about their role and responsibilities in life, but rather he also had to provide economically and otherwise for his family as a way of showing that he was being a man (Koppen et al., 2018). As head of the house he assumed the critical role of decision-maker and disciplinarian by means of enforcing standards of behaviour, allowing him to determine the family's socio-economic status as well as a lifestyle based on his position in the community (Nduna & Jewkes, 2011; Ratele et al., 2012). According to Richter and Morrell (2006) and Lund, (2008), one reason father involvement is not entrenched in the South African culture and policies is a legacy of forced residential dispossession and segregation, with discrimination based on race and differentiated access to the labour market

Hosegood and Madhavan (2012) write that accessibility to fathers in South Africa has been greatly influenced by labour migration, particularly when the country changed from an agricultural to an industrial economy. There was also a sustained boom in mining, which has become an integral part of the economy, accompanied by an influx of foreign investments and generation of wealth. The need for cheap black labour grew greatly, often procured through ruthless methods such as forceful and robust legislation of taxes, restrictions of movement and land access, punishment for quitting, and forced migration, the migration to the towns in large numbers saw the agricultural economy being replaced by the industrial, with the numbers of miners increasing from 10,000 in 1889 to 200,000 in 1910, and 400,000 in 1940 (Coovadia et al., 2009; Grange, 2013; Hosegood & Madhavan, 2012).

Apartheid and migrant labour systems from 1948 to 1994 alienated fathers from their children (Grange, 2013), with families still experiencing fatherlessness in their homes today (Hosegood & Madhavan, 2012). The continuation of families dispersing due to work and schooling was fostered by the highly regulated systems of labour migration as well as the establishment of Bantustan settlements, single sex accommodation, and the establishment of 'townships' (Hall & Posel, 2019; Murray, 1980; Sharp, 1994; Spiegel, 1987). Many women had to raise children alone, resulting in many young black boys growing up without a father or role model on how to be fathers themselves later in life (Grange, 2013; Okeke, 2018). According to Hosegood and Madhavan (2012), labour migration caused the dispersal of

families and increase of poverty, contributing to a decline in marriage prospects, reduced longevity and increased non-marital fertility.

2.6.2 Change in Family Structures

Family structures over time and across countries have evolved from the traditional arrangement by which both parents raised one or more children together in the same household (Okon, 2012; Ratele et al., 2012; Walsh, 2003). Research by Hlabyago and Ogunbanjo (2009), Parke (2003) and Statistics South Africa (2018) have revealed an increasing number of children living without their biological fathers. According to Ratele et al. (2012), colonialism and apartheid had a profound impact on black family lives, with families broken and children left orphaned, living with only one parent or with extended families (Holborn & Eddy, 2011). Most extended families took precedence and alleviated the burden for the single parent.

Marriage rates among Africans have shown a steep decline from the 1980s onwards (Hunter, 2007; Posel, Rudwick & Casale, 2011). Hunter (2007) believes there is a state of marital instability in recent times. During the 1940s and 1950s, marriage was common and respected in rural and urban areas, but Hunter's (2006, p. 695) work illustrated that the sharp decline in respect had been occurring over the previous four decades, leaving it as a largely middle-class institution. He found that when female prospects increased, they grew independent of men and when unemployment grew in the mid-1970s men were unable to secure *lobola/bogadi (bride price)* or act as dependable providers. Posel, Rudwick and Casale (2011) found that Black South African men are less likely to be married than White South African men because of Black African marriages following the custom of *lobola*. There have been changes to the practices of *lobola* over the years as it has become more expensive and payments being required to be paid upfront rather than in instalments over a number of years. As a result, cohabitation rates have risen among young South African women and men.

Research by the South African Institute of Race Relations found children who grow up in single-parent homes discovered that men often do not take responsibility for their families because of poverty and unemployment (Holborn, 2011b). Another contributory factor is the attitudes that men have towards women and sex (Wang, Buffalo, Bakr & Spataro, 2004), with some viewing them merely as sex tools that help them achieve self-sexual gratification, regardless of outcomes such as pregnancy (Dral, Tolani, Smet & van Luijn, 2018; Parke, 2003). According to Padia, Nduna, Khunou, Paseka & Kholopane (2014) and Ratele et al. (2012), the

absence of fathers in South Africa is due to more than just them avoiding responsibility, rather it is also caused by factors such as premature death, poverty and income inequality, unemployment, incarceration, labour migration, numerous masculinity ideologies, mother gatekeeping, lack of connection and attachment to the child.

Children need a place in which they feel safe and cared for, which extended families can provide (Kamau & Davies, 2018). According to Okon (2012, p. 374), it is a child's right to grow up in a family that facilitates the development of his or her personality in a happy, loving and understanding environment. Father absence does not automatically result in a lack of paternal functions not being carried out (Kamau & Davies, 2018), and an extended family will cushion the child from the effects of single parenting or being an orphan (Lippman & Wilcox, 2003). Traditionally, marriage was seen as a platform for the fathers to be a part of their children's lives and to heighten the chances of positive outcomes (Parke, 2004). Thus, extended families play a pivotal role in the absence of fathers as they create the platform for role models, who encourage particular patterns of behaviour (Högnäs & Williams, 2017). According to Makusha (in HSRC, 2018, p. 19), social fathers take up their role of parenting seriously and even guide and show the child paternal love.

Gender differences in extended families reflect those of mothers and fathers in a nuclear family. Makusha, Richter, Knight, van Rooyen and Bhana (2013) found that girls are more likely to relate to female adults than they do to males, and boys to older male adults. Consequently, gender differences affect how an older member of the family influences a child, with grandfathers and uncles tending to influence a male child, and grandmothers and aunts the female child (Loury, 2006). This resembles what would be found in a nuclear family, with a mother and father, as the child would speak to the same-gender parent on issues such as plans for the future, challenges and goals (Loury, 2006). Similarly, a study by Blyth and Foster-Clark (1987, p. 4) measured intimacy between adolescents and their extended family members, using scales of "How much do you go to this person for advice?", "How much does this person accept you no matter what you do?", "How much does this person understand what you're really like?", and "How much do you share your inner feelings with this person?". They found that both sexes of children were equally likely to seek advice from their adult male family members, and to see them as intimates.

A child's tendency to self-disclosure, particularly an adolescent, is related to his or her consideration of receiving social support and love (Gayman, Turner, Cislo & Eliassen, 2011).

Resilience is developed if a perception of the world has been nurtured by the family, either through providing support, instilling pride, or having parent derogation, structure and socioeconomic status (Ancell, Bruns & Chitiyo, 2016; Jessee & Adamson, 2018; Park & Peterson, 2006; Walsh, 2003). This view is supported by Ratele et al. (2012), who found an absent father is felt as a sense of loss, but that family resilience, in terms of a presence of a nurturing, engaged person in the extended family, can influence a child's wellbeing positively. Levetan and Wild (2016) say that children coming from extended families fare equally as children from two parent families. Although extended families try to offer the child social support it is a task made challenging by the country's socioeconomic status (Ratele et al., 2012). As part of a study by Lippman and Wilcox (2003) to map family changes around the world and their effects on the child's wellbeing, it was found that 28% of the South African population live in absolute poverty. Here poverty was defined by the World Family Map (2017) as the rate of living conditions in a country compared with that in others, using an international poverty line and determining the percentage of the population living below it. Children in African countries with poor economic backgrounds are therefore liable to have bleak futures because they score poorly on cognitive tests and are often not sufficiently mature to attend school or handle academic pressures (Berk, 2009; Lippman & Wilcox, 2003; Ratele et al., 2012).

Family size plays a critical role in determining the health and welfare of children as large families tend to deprive them of financial and practical involvement (Walsh, 2003). Therefore, it may be assumed that, in the South African context, children do not receive as much interpersonal contact with their parents in large poor families as they would in nuclear families. Parke (2003) and Walsh (2003) found that, during the family life cycle, with its entries and exits, children live in more than one type of unit. For instance, orphans once lived in a complete family, with both parents present, while in step-families or extended families, the child lived in a single-parent family with other people. Therefore, family size and structure can complicate the child's life as they move through the family's life cycle. Walsh (2003, p. 380) declares that an individual's emotional, cognitive, interpersonal and physical development over time within a specific socio-historical context are affected. In this case, children have no choice in being born into a system or added to an existing system because, according to the Children's Act (2006), a child has a right to belong to a family (Okon, 2012).

The education status of the extended family also has an influence on the child's school achievement (Loury, 2006), with factors that may affect its education being its inability to

afford schooling, inadequate school and teachers, inadequate healthcare, and the parents' work taking priority over school and education (Högnäs & Williams, 2017). Globally, Africa ranks lowest in levels of parental educational attainment (Cano & Baxter, 2019; Lippman & Wilcox, 2003; Okon, 2012; Wang et al., 2004). Highly educated parents instil the importance of education in their child and have high expectations of them and research indicates that they cognitively stimulate their child, provide extracurricular activities and use appropriate and consistent discipline techniques. For instance, between 1990 and 2011, 20% of children lived in households in which the adults had only completed secondary education (Cano & Baxter, 2019; Lippman & Wilcox, 2003).

Family structure and size is highlighted as contributing to a child's wellbeing throughout the course of their lives (Fazel, 2017). Having an absent father in the home changes the family structure and has a negative impact on the child's upbringing (Anderson, 2015; Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2006), because of an assumption that fathers play a significant and different role from mothers in parenting (Ratele et al., 2012). In South Africa single mother families are associated with high levels of psychological distress and depression (Fazel, 2017). According to an article by *News24* (2013), children living without both parents are vulnerable to abuse and more likely to experience poverty and unemployment. Women in South Africa are impoverished because they earn less than men and they are likely to live in high crime neighbourhoods (Downey, Growder & Kemp, 2017). Children whose mothers have not married are often poor and young, with a low income and relatively few years of formal education, if any, which ultimately gives rise to unemployment (Falci, 1997; Kramer, Myhra, Zuiker & Bauer, 2016; Parke, 2003). It was found by Kramer, Myhra, Zuiker and Bauer (2016) that some of the prominent factors that put at greater risk children in single-parent families, have significantly reduced household outcome, disruptions to the family structure, the child's turmoil when parents separate and/or re-couple with a step-parent, and the child not having strong bonds with the other older adult who is a non-custodial parent.

In light of these challenges single mothers often resort to seeking support and assistance from their male counterparts, leading to cohabitation (Lippman & Wilcox, 2003). Children then have a social father, found by Berger and McLanahan (2012, p.1) to portray poorer developmental and cognitive outcomes than their more affluent peers with married parents. It is believed that children from two-parent homes and step-families are at a much lower risk of experiencing extreme poverty, school drop-out and have healthy interpersonal relationships than those with absent fathers (Berger & McLanahan, 2012; Parke, 2003; Wang et al., 2004).

According to Wang et al. (2004), they are of the perception that many of the world's social problems may be influenced by female-headed families, therefore it is hypothetical that both biological parents can provide financial, social, cultural and human capital (Lippman & Wilcox, 2003).

South Africa is rated as one of the countries with the lowest marriage rates in Africa, due to high bride price, as such most men are absent from homes and their children's lives and thus contributors to low national percentages of father maintenance (Mutanda & Odimegwu, 2019; Posel, Rudwick and Casale, 2011; Richter, Chikovore & Makusha, 2010). It is said that some men in South Africa are unsure of their roles, particularly in marriages in which the mother also works and might be earning more (Fazel, 2017). According to Richter, Chikovore and Makusha (2010), 50% of men in South Africa do not spend time with or see their children every day, however, fathers who are involved in their children's lives and go beyond the role of protection and provider are described as interacting energetically and affectionately with their children to their mutual benefit (Adamsons, 2018; Coates & Phares, 2019; Guarin & Meyer, 2018; Okeke, 2018).

2.6.3 Social Factors

Koppen, Kreyenfeld and Trappe (2018) believe that married fathers who reside with their children tend to be more involved in their upbringing than those never married. The assumption is that, when a man decides to marry, his decision reflects an intention and interest in children (Mohane, 2009; Seltzer & Bianchi, 1988; Sikweyiya et al., 2017). In South Africa, a man's commitment to fatherhood and involvement in his child's life is often dependant on a number of factors, as noted above. Richter and Morrell (2006) write that not attending the birth of one's own child, failing to participate in its life, and not acknowledging it as one's own, are some of the factors that influence commitment. A possible explanation for lack of commitment may be that having concurrent partners is acceptable in the black tradition, as are polygamous marriages (Coovadia et al., 2009). Concurrent relationships by both men and women has seen a rise during the industrial age, when cultural notions of "*nyatsi"* and *"makhwapheni" (concubine/mistress)* that is secret relationships between men and women, were required and recognised as strengthening the relationship (Coovadia et al., 2009).

The migrant labour system escalated extramarital affairs, either with other males in the same mining hostels or females in towns and their rural homes, often establishing second

families (Coovadia et al., 2009, p. 822). An example provided by Hunter (2006) of these concurrent relationships in exchange for money was a rural woman who migrated to an informal settlement and had two boyfriends who supported her financially. Her main boyfriend provided money and food while the other was a secret lover who gave her R50 to R100 irregularly. She would not use a condom with the main boyfriend but did so with the other as one of the many women who migrated to town to sustain herself through a sexual economy and the informal sector.

With such a history of sexual practices, the implications for South Africa's younger generation are significant. Currently, sexual practices of young black men who idolize hegemonic masculinity ideologies tend to predict their lack of commitment to early pregnancy and being an absent father (Makusha & Richter, 2014). Some of the practices include condom use, withdrawal or a long-term relationship with a partner who uses or does not use birth control (Dral, Tolin, Smet & van Luijin, 2018; Sullivan, 1989). When some of these sexual practices result in pregnancies, most young black men who grow up without fathers to model and guide them struggle to come to terms with the pregnancy because they had not planned for it (Nduna & Jewkes, 2011). The lack of having a present father denies them knowledge of the historical role and responsibilities of a father so that they too can be involved fathers (Nduna & Jewkes, 2011; Rabe, 2019). According to Morrell and Richter (2006), a large number of South African fathers seem disinterested in becoming involved fathers because they did not even attend the birth of their child, let alone be in the vicinity while the mother was in labour. Hospitals in South Africa recorded 989 318 live births in 2017 with 61,7% of those births without details of the father (StatsSA, 2018).

2.6.4 Cultural Influences

Culture influences what fathers do and what is expected of fathers therefore the ever changing aspects of culture influence father involvement (Shwalb & Shwalb, 2014). Father involvement varies between societies because of economic and employment status of societies (Shwalb & Shwalb, 2014). Richter, Chikovore and Makusha (2010) believe some fathers may not be aware that they have fathered a child or they deny paternity because they can afford to pay neither the damages of impregnating a woman (*inhlawulo*) nor bride price (*bogadi/lobola*). Hunter (2006) writes that some men may be discouraged because African marriage is a process that unfolds in a number of stages that result in the man incurring financial costs, rather than just being a one-day event. Some studies suggest that if a man is unable to provide money,

food, accommodation, school fees or healthcare he feels inadequate as a father and man. Financial provision is an aspect of masculinity and determinant of a man's involvement in his family in black African communities (Makusha & Richter, 2014; Thupayagale-Tshweneagae et al., 2012).

Hewlett (2000) points out that culture is ethnocentric and the more one believes and practises it the more it is perceived as natural and universal. Tessier, Gosselin, Young, Kristel, & Thomassin, (2019) argue that cultures mould one's morality therefore cultural assignation of roles for fathers and participation in childcare will differ. For instance, when asked about the important factors fathers contribute to their children, Fulani men in Northern Africa in parts of Nigeria and Cameroon said seeking out a good mother for their children, while Southern African men in South Africa and Namibia said financial provision for his children (Meyer, 2017; Hewlett, 2000).

According to Hosegood and Madhavan (2012), South African men's identities are determined by paternity and fathering. The biological father provides a child with the family or clan name, even when he does not reside in the same household (Thupayagale-Tshweneagae et al., 2012). As noted by Nduna (2014), traditional rituals, such as *imbeleko (ceremony that is conducted on the 10th day after the baby is born)*, are performed by the child's paternal family to introduce them to their ancestors so that the child can legitimately connect with their paternal ancestry. In South Africa, taking the father's surname fosters a legitimate identity that goes along with being recognized by the father and paternal uncles, and having access to the family lineage. It is believed largely in South African communities that if a child does not use the father's surname it will bring about bad omens and they will not be successful in life. The areas impacted and predetermined by ancestral spiritual protection involve academic achievement, securing a job, good health, lasting relationships and marriage, therefore biological fatherhood is vital in the South African context to pass down cultural values, alleviating future misfortunes and promoting identity for the child (Nduna, 2014).

Bride price, *lobola* or *bogadi*, is now generally paid in cash rather than cattle. Eddy, Boor, and Mphaka (2013) explain that the cash payment does not always consider the changed circumstances of the contemporary world of poverty and high unemployment rates. Moreover, sometimes families take advantage of this practice for self-enrichment, acquiring large sums of money and expensive gifts (Rakabe, 2016). If the father is incapable of meeting the requirements, he is denied access to his child (Nduna, 2014; Thupayagale-Tshweneagae et al.,

2012). Furthermore, should a child be born out of wedlock, the father's access to the child may be limited or denied completely until he pays for the damages or bride price (Eddy et al., 2013; Thupayagale-Tshweneagae et al., 2012).

2.6.5 Law and Policies

Financial provision is an aspect of masculine identity in the African perspective and is valued throughout African communities as a determinant of a man's love for his child and manhood (Khaleque, 2018; Nduna, 2014). Incarcerated fathers are not considered able to play a vital role in the upbringing of their children as they do not communicate with them regularly and are not involved in making decisions with their spouse and other family members (American Psychological Association, 2016). Similarly, unemployed fathers have access to their children restricted by the child's mother or family, or the father himself, due to the shame of being unable to financially support his child. In situations such as the one discussed above, of father absence, a customary practice in South Africa and other African countries is to pass on the responsibilities of childcare to the maternal uncle if the father is incarcerated, deceased or absent (Morrell, Possel & Devey, 2003; Rabe, 2019).

A man's participation or involvement has not been salient in public policies and has not been seen as a requirement (Levton, Vander Gaag, Greene, Kaufman & Barker, 2015). Women and men both believe that the former are more biologically suited and have nurturing care for children, whereas men are characterized as clueless when it comes to caregiving (Mungai, 2015). Some 40% of the global formal workforces are made up of women, but they continue to perform a disproportionate amount of domestic work, in addition to caregiving, whereas men do not increase their participation in childcare as much as women do (Levton et al., 2015).

A study conducted between 1965 and 2003 into men's participation in childcare across 20 countries showed that women contributed more to household and childcare. However, employed men showed an average increase of hours per week by contributing to the household and childcare (Levton et al., 2015). A reason for this increase may be that assertions and policy proposals often assume that non-resident fathers do not support their children while resident fathers do, even though resident fathers may not show as much effort as do mothers (Madhavan, Townsend & Garey, 2008). As a result, this saw the development of programmes to increase residential and non-residential father involvement frequently by targeting fathers' employment dynamics (Castillo & Sarver, 2012; Doherty, 2008; Kolm, 2015).

According to Padi, Nduna, Khunou and Kholopane (2014), before March 2013 the birth certificate in South African hospitals only included the mother's name, with no mention of the father. Hence, children born before this relied on their mothers to know the identity of the father (Nduna, 2014). Most African countries have some form of official paternity leave, usually one to six days, even though the leave is not paid when it exceeds three days (Mungai, 2015). Tunisia gives one day of paternity leave, South Africa and Tanzania three days, and Ethiopia five, though unpaid and only "in the event of exceptional or serious events." Kenya mandates two weeks of paid paternity leave (Mungai, 2015). Expectation of a father to be a financial provider may discourage him from taking paternity leave days that are not paid because his responsibilities have increased due to the arrival of the child (Kolm, 2015).

During apartheid, a child support grant was formulated by which the state gave parents of black and Indian children money for survival (Sullivan, 1989). This was followed by the Maintenance Act (Act 99 of 1999), which reinforced the duty "of the child's parents to support that child," more specifically, fathers to make payments to the mothers for their children. However, Ratele and Nduna (2018) draw attention to the reality that mothers have used this and preceding laws to sue fathers for child support, thus affecting the nature of the relationship a father has with their child.

2.6.6 Poverty in Urban Settlement

Poverty and inequality are largely race-related and one may recognise that there is a significant number of poor parents with children across South Africa (Stats SA, 2019; Seekings & Nattrass, 2015). Statistics reveal that 49.2% of South Africans live below the lowest poverty line in South Africa (Stats SA, 2019; Ture, 2015). According to Lund (2008), households headed by females often fall target to poverty and are considered among the poorest, as children without fathers generally lack formal education. They suffer worse effects of poverty than male-headed households, at 33% compared to 49.9% (Stats SA, 2019).

Seekings and Nattrass (2015) found that most recipients of child-support grants are poor African mothers and children, precipitated by South Africa's heritage of disempowerment of women and historical belief that women are inferior to men, have no say in decision-making on family matters and only restricted access to social networking. They are therefore more disadvantaged by inequality and poverty than men (Ellerbe, Jones, & Carlson, 2018; Hunter, 2006), who are more financially sustainable than women, with access to loans, mutual support and influence (Morrell & Swartz, 2012).

Young women in their early 20s are more likely than men to change residence and move out, which would lead to them living alone in informal settlements with high unemployment rates, poor or smaller households not formed around marital bonds (Hunter, 2007). Female-headed households are common in informal settlements as they are often due to black men distancing themselves with inadequate financial support for their children and families (Spjeldnaes, Moland, Harris & Sam, 2011). According to Castillo and Sarver (2012), poverty poses a number of threats to the economic, emotional and physical wellbeing of children as a father's ability to financially and emotionally support his child is undermined. As such, Hunter (2006) believes that among the poor black people, wedlock is accepted as a way to organise social alliance and flow of resources.

2.7 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Fathers have a multitude of roles, which include financial provider, caregiver and nurturer, friend and playmate, monitor and disciplinarian, and provider of links to the extended family and the community (Jordan & Lewis, 2005). However, studies have shown that there is an alarming rate of father absence in South Africa, which leaves children prone to poor educational outcomes, antisocial behaviour and disrupted employment later in life (Frazier, 2015). The role functioning dimension of the McMaster Model of Family Functioning (MMFF) will be used to explore adolescents' perspectives of their father's role and responsibility in facilitating optimal care and future wellbeing. The conceptual framework of this study will provide guidelines within which to gauge the effectiveness of an African father's involvement with the child and in the family.

Utilising a conceptual framework for this study, I am able to bring linkage of concepts into a coherent structure that makes it easier for the reader to understand my study and the boundaries within which the findings will be focused (Polit & Beck, 2014). Figure 2.1 (below) provides a visual representation of the current study's conceptual framework.

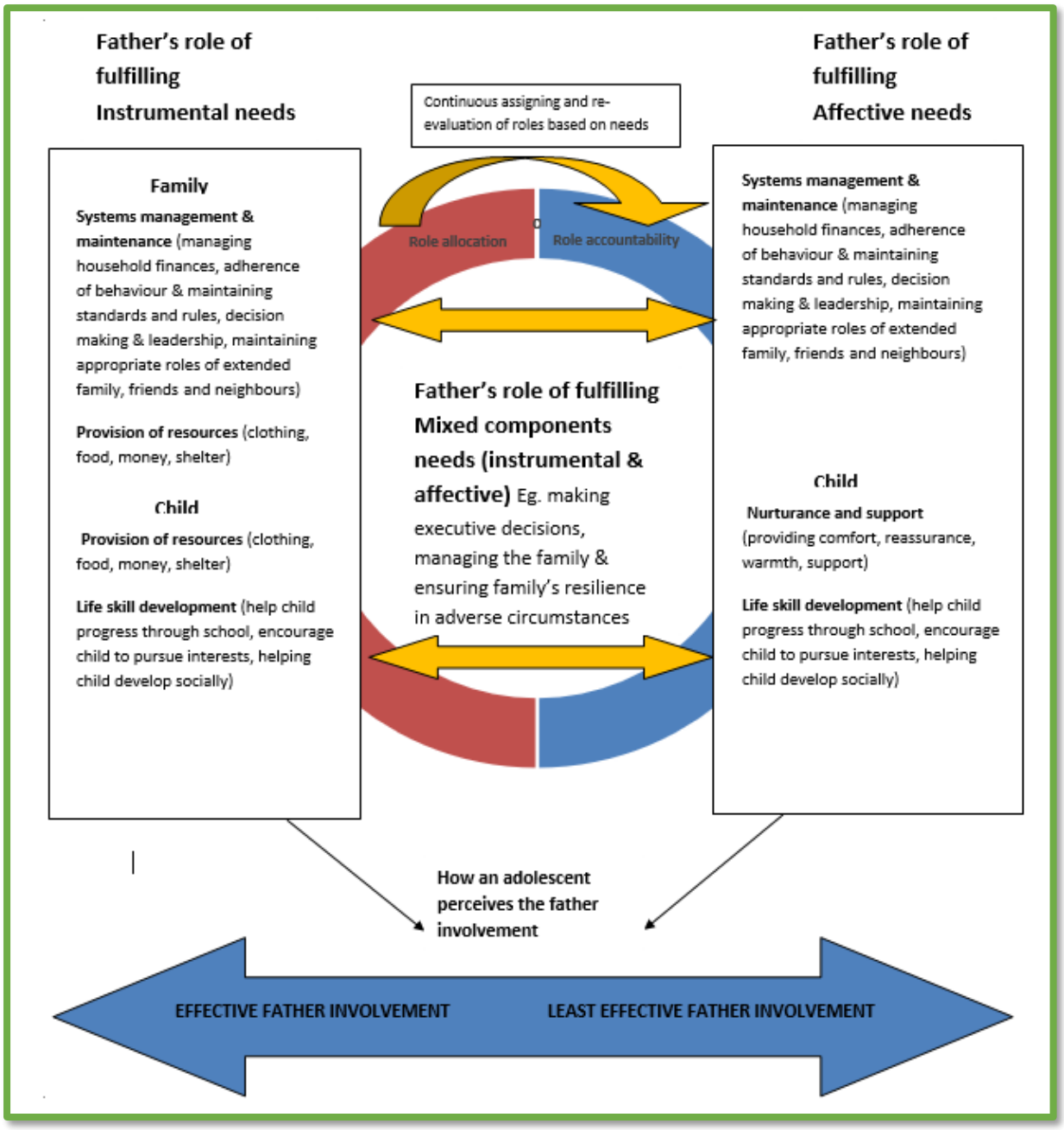


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework for the current study

The MMFF was developed by Epstein, Bishop and Baldwin (1983) as a tool with which to assess normal family functioning. They sampled their participants from university students and identified the major areas of family functioning as problem solving, communication, roles, affective responsiveness, affective involvement and behaviour (Roy, 1990), six key areas in succession from 'effective' to 'ineffective,' further divided into the two functions of 'instrumental' and 'affective.' The model assumes that the way a family system functions ultimately affects a family member's emotions and physical wellbeing (Mosia, 2014), therefore

it serves to evaluate the effectiveness of South African fathers' involvement in their children's wellbeing. Secondly, the model is grounded on the system approach that posits that a family is a group of individuals interrelated to work as one unit and that such relationships of different family members have a great mutual influence (Walsh, 2016, Mosia, 2014). The model is therefore used in this study to investigate how a father's involvement affects the family.

The six dimensions of the MMFF model are presented in detail as follows.

2.7.1 Problem Solving

This dimension looks at how a family is able to resolve effectively any problems they face without compromising the family's healthy functioning (Epstein et al., 1983). A problem in this dimension is described as a condition that compromises the family's integrity and smooth operating and a situation it finds difficult to resolve (Ryan, Epstein, Keitner, Miller, & Bishop, 2005). To resolve a problem effectively, the family should be able to correctly identify the problem then carry on through all seven steps, which according to Roy (1990), are as follows:

1) Identifying the problem involves determining and correctly identifying where there the problem is of an affective or instrumental nature; who identifies the problem and if there is a pattern in how families address problems.
2) Communication with appropriate person focuses on ensuring that the right person or people are approached with the identified problem.
3) This stage involves the family looking for solutions in relation to the identified problem and making sure that they come up with as many viable solutions as possible.
4) Decision on the chosen alternative should be made by the family members unanimously as family members who will be require to act have to be well informed.
5) The action stage is about the family carrying out the plan completely and not just some of it or not at all.
6) Monitoring of the action needs the family to develop a way in which they keep track on the decisions agree on and that they are achieved.
7) This final stage of evaluation involves the family reflecting on its problem solving behaviour, the successes and failures and which mechanism work for them the most as a family.

2.7.2 Communication

Communication involves the exchange of verbal information amongst family members (Roy, 1990), and whether it is clear or masked and direct or indirect. Communication is considered to be effective and healthy when it clear and direct (Ryan et al., 2005).

2.7.3 Roles

Roles are "the repetitive patterns of behaviour where family members fulfil daily family functions" (Ryan et al., 2005, p. 31), as they have to perform some tasks repeatedly in order to maintain the smooth functioning of the family system. This involves dealing with affective and instrumental areas as well as some mixed components. Within these three areas there are five necessary functions that family members work towards fulfilling: 1) provision of resources; 2) nurturing and support; 3) adult sexual gratification; 4) personal development; and 5) maintenance and management of the family system (Ryan et al., 2005). The roles dimension is also concerned with determining if roles are allocated appropriately and whether the family holds members accountable for their roles in the functioning of the family system.

2.7.4 Affective Responsiveness

The dimension of affective responsiveness addresses how individuals relate to one another emotionally in the family (Roy, 1990), gauged by how appropriate it is to the situation, looking at the available full spectrum of emotions and quantity of affect towards the situation (Ryan et al., 2005). There are two types of affect, namely welfare emotions and emergency emotions (Epstein, Bishop & Baldwin, 1983). Welfare emotions are feelings of warmth, love, joy, happiness and emergency emotions consist of anger, fear and disappointment (Ryan et al., 2005). A family is considered to be functioning affectively when there is a wide range of emotions and more appropriate responses (Ryan et al., 2005).

2.7.5 Affective Involvement

Affective involvement investigates the extent to which each family member and the family unit shows interest in, is involved in and values particular activities of individual family members. There are six measures, according to Ryan et al. (2005, p. 35), are as follows:

1) Lack of involvement in a family occurs when family members show no interest in each other's lives and interests.

2) Members of a family that is devoid of feelings have some interest in each other but to a minimal and only demonstrated when there is a demand.
3) Narcissistic involvement lacks feelings towards the particular event or situation. It is solely based on egocentric benefits.
4) Empathic families show genuine interest and concern to family members.
5) Over involved family members are over-protective and overly intrusive in each other's lives.
6) Symbiotic involvement relates to a situation in which family members have no boundaries amongst themselves.

2.7.6 Behaviour Control

Behaviour control relates to how a family addresses rules and standards for behaviour in three specific areas: 1) physically dangerous situations; 2) situations involving meeting and expressing psychobiological needs and drives; and 3) situations involving socializing behaviour both between family members and with people outside the family system. This dimension focuses on how the family abides by the rules they have set and whether they live by them as well as the family's level of tolerance. The behaviour control extends to the parental discipline of children and the standards and expected behaviour that adults set upon each other. There are four styles of behaviour control, based on variations of the standard and the latitude of behaviour tolerance:

1) Rigid behaviour control involves having little room for negotiations or flexibility in relation to set standards of behaviour.
2) Flexible behaviour control is perceived to be the most reasonable by family members as they can negotiate or change the set standards in relation to the context.
3) Laissez-faire does not have set standards or direction; family members can do as they wish including children.
4) Chaotic behaviour control sees a family not knowing what the set standards of behaviour are or which ones apply at certain periods and whether they are allowed to negotiate. This happens because the family shifts in an unpredictable manner between the three above mentions stages. (Roy, 1990; Ryan et al., 2005).

According to Epstein, Bishop and Baldwin (1983), flexible behaviour control is the most effective form.

2.7.7 Role Functioning Dimension

As stated, the McMaster model has six dimensions to help understand how families address organisational, structural and transitional challenges (Walsh, 2003). For this study, only role functioning will be looked at for purposes of being culturally sensitive. The context in which the model was founded differs from the South African one, therefore, role functioning will attempt to understand a South African child's perception of his/her father's role and responsibilities.

When roles are clearly stated a family is able to be resilient and deal with daily hurdles and unforeseen occurrences that happen throughout the family life cycle. Therefore, roles allow for healthy functioning of the family, who have specific needs that have to be satisfied in order to function effectively, whether affective or instrumental. A healthily functioning family, however, plays all three roles to carry through the family in all life cycle events. Affective roles are concerned with providing emotional support and encouragement, while instrumental ones focus on providing the family with physical resources, for instance, food, shelter, and clothing. Mixed components is a combination of instrumental and affective roles that need to be carried out in order for the family to function effectively and these involve making executive decisions and managing the family. Consequently, fathers are challenged with fulfilling three fundamental tasks for their children and families, namely, the provision of basic tasks, such as food and shelter; the developmental task, which looks at the challenges the family faces throughout the life cycle or development of individuals; and the hazardous task, which explores the family's ability to be resilient in adverse circumstances (Epstein, Keitner, Miller, & Bishop, 2005; Moisa, 2014; Rick & Stephen, 2009; Walsh, 2016). I will now consider and briefly describe each role functioning individually that will be used for the conceptual framework as follows.

Provision of resources involve food, clothing, money and shelter for the family (Roy, 1990), a crucial function within the family as it plays primarily an instrumental role (Rick & Stephen, 2009).

Nurturing and support includes providing comfort, warmth and reassurance for family members, for example, comforting a child after a bad day at school or family members supporting each other after a loss of a loved one (Rick & Stephen, 2009). This role is also considered a primary affect role (Epstein, Bishop & Baldwin, 1981).

Adult sexual gratification is concerned with the level of sexual activity that is required for each adult to be satisfied. It is affective because both parents should feel gratified in the relationship (Roy, 1990).

Life skill and development is associated with the development of life skills, for instance, helping children excel in school, helping an adult carve out and choose a career path and facilitating the social development of the child (Roy, 1990). According to Rick and Stephen, (2009), life skill development also includes physical and emotional development of children and adults. Functions of this role embody mixed components of affective and instrumental tasks (Epstein, Keitner, Miller & Bishop, 2005).

Maintenance and management of the family system involves different ways a family maintains standards in the unit, related to the techniques and actions needed to maintain the standards the family has set (Epstein et al, 1983; Ryan, Epstein, Keitner, Miller, & Bishop, 2005). Tasks include leadership and decision making; management and handling of household finances; ensuring that friends and extended family members do not infringe on the family boundaries; and maintenance of their roles. Other responsibilities found here include maintaining discipline and enforcing behavioural standards (Ryan et al., 2005; Rick & Stephen, 2009; Roy, 1990). This dimension also subsumes two critical functions important when a family is facing challenges and needs to regain its stability, namely, role allocation and role accountability.

i) *Role allocation* is associated with how families assign responsibilities that will facilitate effective family functioning (Rick & Stephen, 2009). Families assign roles by incorporating its pattern of activities and responsibilities and deciding on who does what by determining whether the assignment is suitably allocated, carried out consistently and whether the family member assigned to the task automatically gets the assignment or they can negotiate (Ryan, Epstein, Keitner, Miller, & Bishop, 2005, p. 32). According to Rick and Stephen (2009) it is important that family members are allocated roles that do not overburden them, therefore, they consider age, gender, financial standing and empathetic nature. For fair allocation and equal spread of roles, families often take it upon themselves to help other family members if they have too many roles to fulfil. For example, a full-time working mother cannot take full care of the children and do the majority of the household chores. In such a circumstance, other family members can assist with some of the household chores.

ii) *Role accountability* relates to how a family member takes responsibility for ensuring that the task to which they are assigned is completed fully and effectively (Rick & Stephen, 2009). Accountability also instils responsibility in family members because they monitor and correct each other (Ryan, Epstein, Keitner, Miller, & Bishop, 2005).

2.7.8 Roles in African Families

People often look to their families for protection, emotional support in difficult times, status and family names (United Nations Population Information, 2001). While parents are ascribed the responsibility of teaching, disciplining and providing for the child (Rick & Stephen, 2009), fathers are specifically the ones usually posed with the expectation of fulfilling three fundamental tasks for their children and families, namely, the provision of basic tasks, the developmental task and the hazardous task (Moisa, 2014; Walsh, 2016).

Within African homes, each family member has a certain role they have to play and in the family that has social and family expectations of how it should be fulfilled (Rick & Stephen, 2009). An African father is the head of the household, even when he is absent, a reinforcement that locates him as the head of the family and perpetuated by statements such as *"Monna wa lelwapa," "Ubaba walayikhaya*," which translates as "*the father of the house*." Having a homestead is central to a man's identity, therefore dictating the need for him to work hard to provide for his family in order to be recognised as "*monna tota*" (*a real man*) (Hunter, 2006).

The role of being a real man and father in the African context involves providing, guiding and overseeing the lives of their children, exercising morality, ensuring his family customs are abided by, and being the head of the family. Assuming leadership for South African fathers involves being an authoritarian figure who constantly demands "*tlhompho, /tlotlo" "inhlonipho*," (*respect*). A reason for this rigid demand for respect was due to the African cultural system's embeddedness within the patriarchal system (Lesejane, 2006). The "African patriarchy" allowed for men always to have power over women and in the family (Healthy Children Org., 2015), and fathers did not allow women to take on decision-making positions (Lesejane, 2006).

As noted, most African families are the equivalent of 'dictatorships,' as there is one individual who has been given the power and authority within the family to assign rights, privileges, obligations and roles and responsibilities to every member (Healthy Children Org., 2015). However, one characteristic common to African mothers is seeing the welfare of their

child as paramount. African mothers have been given the roles of caregiving, nurturing and keeping the family together and functioning (Healthy Children Org., 2015). Traditionally, men were the ones who were in employment and economically empowered, but changes in society have seen African women joining the labour market and acquiring the means for economic independence, in some instances becoming sole breadwinners (Ngobeni, 2006).

CHAPTER 3 - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter three's purpose is to orient the reader to the study's research methods and procedures. I discuss the methodology followed in the study as well as changes that occurred while conducting it that were not initially planned for. I will also describe the research approach, research design, research method, ethical considerations, and quality criteria. It begins with presentation of the research approach, which incorporates an interpretivist meta-theoretical paradigm with a qualitative methodological approach as the overarching philosophical framework. This is followed by discussion of the research design, represented by exploratory multiple case studies with focus of analysis on the adolescent child's perspective of father involvement (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Streb, 2010; Willig 2008). I then discuss how the adolescents who represented the sample were recruited, using purposive sampling with a set selection criterion. I utilized qualitative techniques to collect data, comprising semi-structured interviews, observations and a focus group discussion interview (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; McKechnie, 2007 Overholser, 1993) and describe how I analysed the raw data generated from the interviews using thematic analysis techniques. The final discussion is on adherence to strictures on ethical conduct and trustworthiness.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

The research was set within an interpretivist paradigm and followed a qualitative approach, described as follows.

3.2.1 Research Paradigm

According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006, p, 6), paradigms are "all-encompassing systems of interrelated practice and thinking that define the nature of inquiry for researchers." Given that I wished to investigate individuals and their subjective experiences, an interpretivist paradigm was considered suitable for the study. Moreover, the research title suggests that the mode of inquiry should be one that looks at how people construct their worldview (Cohen at al., 2011; Stavraki, 2014). I used an interpretivist research paradigm to focus on participants' meaning-making while collecting data, as it recognizes that the process occurs through social interactions (Wahyuni, 2012) and that reality is multiple to people and

highly relative (Meares, 2015). Interpretivist researchers see individuals as living in a system, therefore their way of making sense is influenced by their social context, which for my participants was a semi-urban area and the conditions in which they lived (Carson, Gilmore, Perry and Gronhaug, 2001; Stavraki, 2014;).

The interpretivist research paradigm emphasizes that theory should not precede investigations and that it should be grounded on the data generated from participants' experiences and understandings (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). According to Meares (2015) and Neuman (2000) a researcher attempts to understand human behaviour by investigating motives, meanings and subjective experiences that are always time- and context-bound. Consequently, the theory I generated during the analysis provided insight into participants' understanding of father involvement as well as how the theory related specifically to them as sources of information (Cohen at al., 2011).

It is significant that individuals base their personal meaning and understanding of life on their backgrounds and experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), therefore it was necessary to retain the integrity of the father involvement phenomenon by interacting with individuals and getting to know who they were and listen to their stories (Cohen at al., 2011). According to Gephart (2018), the interpretivist approach's use of qualitative research methods allows the researcher to use flexible, context-sensitive methods to understand complex issues such as this.

3.2.2 Qualitative Approach

My focus was on investigating perspectives of father involvement with the aim of gaining deeper understandings of participants' needs and specific details by capturing descriptive data (Vaughn & Turner, 2016). Therefore, as a researcher subscribing to qualitative research, I attempt to synthesize and understand the contextual, subjective experiences of participants (Bhati, Hoyt & Huffman, 2014). For Willig and Rogers (2017), qualitative research approaches should be employed as they aim to portray a theory that illustrates how people generally make meaning of their lives and does not focus simply on the experiences of specific individuals in a sample. They add that qualitative research makes way for the generalizable theory from data with multiple participants, whilst Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggest that a way of capturing this sensitive data is for participants to be posed a series of questions that focus on extracting meaningful information from the words spoken and generating themes from them. While collecting data it is important for researchers to consider that data has to be culture-

specific and context-rich (Mack, 2010), in study relating to how adolescents experience father involvement in the township of Tembisa.

Using qualitative research has advantages as researchers collect and analyse the data themselves, rather than using empirical tools which then facilitates inter-subjective co-construction between researcher and participant (Bhati, Hoyt & Huffman, 2014). Following this method, I asked open-ended questions to participants and proceeded to probe further to produce rich and descriptive answers. Furthermore, qualitative research is naturalistic, so the interviews were conducted at the homes of the participants, in which they felt most comfortable, as well as at the school. Being present for the data collection permitted me the chance to collaborate with the participants and be sufficiently flexible to allow them to generate meaningful data, especially relating to the sensitivity of the topic. Although my research results were specifically related to participants and are not meant to be generalised they can be transferred to individuals with similar characteristics (Connelly, 2016).

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The design for the research was a case study that looked at descriptions of father involvement by adolescents living in a semi-urban settlement, considered appropriate as it allowed me to capture context-rich and descriptive data.

3.3.1 Format of Case Study

In a case study the researcher has the opportunity to explore the participants' realities and descriptions of their thoughts, experiences and feelings for situations. Looking at a case in its real-life context it is descriptive and detailed, while combining subjective and objective data (Cohen at al., 2011; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). According to Yin (2014), it differs from other research methods as it investigates contemporary events in which behaviours cannot be manipulated because the sources of evidence include direct observations and interviews of people involved. Selecting a case study guides the purpose of the study, whether to describe a case, explore a case or compare cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013).

Three types of case studies have been identified by Yin (19894) in terms of outcomes: i) exploratory (as a pilot to other studies or research questions; ii) descriptive (Providing narrative account); and iii) explanatory (testing theories). Yin later differentiated case studies

as being: i) single; ii) holistic; or iii) multiple (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2014), whilst Bishop (2010) and Streb's (2010) work informs researchers that single and multiple case studies occur in exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research designs. For Yin (1994), a case comprises the individual being studied, so each adolescent from whom I collected data constituted a case, given an individual interview and collection of them during a focus group discussion. I established the unit of analysis by examining the research questions the study aimed to answer (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2014). My evaluation of the research questions delineated the unit of analysis, namely the adolescents' perspectives of father involvement, which could not be looked at in isolation from the context of a semi-urban settlement. To gain a true reflection of each adolescent's opinion I considered the context of a semi-urban settlement such as Tembisa because that was the context which the research question encompassed.

Due to the nature and purpose of my research study, investigating each participant and a collective of them as a case in their own distinctiveness (Yin, 1984), they were exploratory. Exploratory case study research design was employed as there has been little research conducted into opinions on father involvement by adolescents in poor communities. Therefore, this allowed me to explore the phenomenon (Streb, 2010).

3.3.2 Multiple Case Study

Multiple case studies help researchers give more sophisticated and detailed descriptions of phenomena as information is collected about each case (Kienstra & Heijden, 2015; Yin, 1994). There are three cases in this current study, therefore a multiple case study research design was deemed appropriate (Streb, 2010). They involve exploring numerous cases simultaneously to determine discrepancies and similarities between and within the cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Bishop, 2010). According to Yin (2014), multiple cases are used to predict results either similar or contrasting to the theory and literature, in my case about opinions of male and female adolescent participants, with regards to father involvement.

A benefit of using multiple over single case studies was that I was able to examine the meanings of father involvement across three cases, making the results more significant than those from a single case. They also allowed the participants to give more extensive descriptions and explanations as they were robust (Chmiliar, 2012; Baxter & Jack, 2008). Lastly, using them enabled me to conduct cross-case analysis which, according to Conrad and Serlin (2006), involves converging findings of each case into one interpretation, therefore increasing the

generalizability of the results. The only shortfall I experienced about multiple case study research designs was that they were time-consuming, especially in the analysis process (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

3.3.3 Case Binding

Case studies need to be bounded as often it is not apparent what constitutes a case or its boundaries (Elger, 2012; Stake, 2006). Working on the cases, I had to consider what aspects did not form part of a case and did not contribute to answering the research question by forming boundaries and consulting the study's conceptual framework. I was able to delineate the scope by considering the individuals I wished to sample from the grade 9 learners. I indicate the selection criteria for sampling later in this Chapter, but the geographical location of my participants was a consideration I first had to unpack (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Mills, Durepos & Wiebe, 2010), and since my study is a contextual investigation of father involvement I researched locations in which there were large numbers of female-headed households and made a cognisant point to look at semi-urban settlements located close to Pretoria for logistical purposes when collecting data (Karlsson, 2016). Finally, the meanings the participants attributed to father involvement were bound to their experiences and conceptualisation of what father involvement was as they shared them. For the fieldwork stage, I had to also consider practical constraints, such as the timeframe of the study and permission for appropriate access before approaching any minor (Elger, 2012). The ethical clearance that I was granted clearly stated the protocol to which I had to adhere with regards to conducting my study ethically, outlined in detail in Section 3.6.

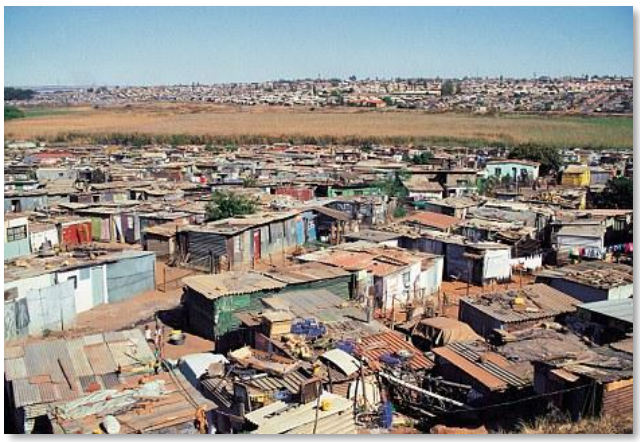
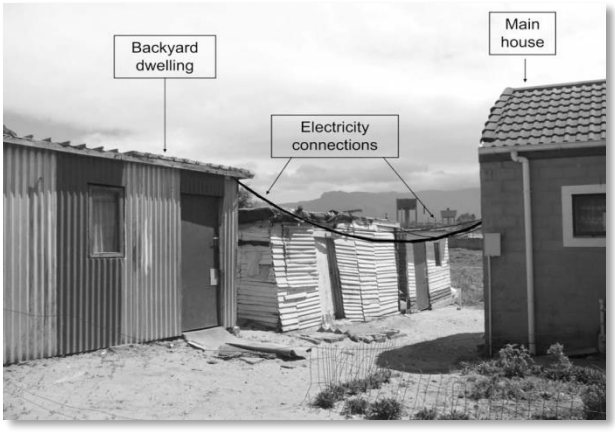
3.3.4 Setting

I conducted my study in the Tembisa community, situated to the north of Kempton Park in the East Rand and one of the largest townships in South Africa, with a total population of 463,109. It has a high number of absent fathers, with 27.1% female-headed households, most of which have a low source of income ranging from R19,601 to R38,200 annually and thus high levels of poverty (South Africa History Archives, 2018; Stats SA, 2018). The lack of father involvement in this township and the repercussions for living conditions of its children led me to conduct my research study there.

Unemployment and poverty in Tembisa are the driving forces behind children growing up in adverse conditions, with the average dwelling measuring approximately 2.6 square metres

and most of the housing being formal, informal or backyard dwellings (Stats SA, 2018) (See Table 3.1). However, according to Hamann, Mkhize and Gotz (2018), backyard and informal dwellings increased in number by 10,000 per square kilometre between 2001 and 2016, rendering even less of a conducive environment in which for children to grow up.

Table 3.1: Types Of Housing In Tembisa

DWELLING TYPE	DEFINITION	ILLUSTRATION
Formal	Freehold formal houses	
Informal	Any informal housing structure	
Backyard	All backyard structures associated with the formal housing that may be used for housing purposes (formal and informal)	

Adapted from Hamann, Mkhize & Gotz (2018)

3.3.5 Modifications to the research design

There were changes to the initial research plan which I summarise in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Changes To The Research Design

ORIGINAL PLAN	MODIFICATIONS TO THE PLAN
SAMPLE SELECTION	
1. Invitation to research Invitations to research pamphlets will be handed out by class teacher to grade 9 students to take home and discuss with their parent.	**1. Invitation to research** The orientation teacher asked to see all students who were interested in participating in the study and handed out the pamphlets to them. Those students who were interested in participating were requested to come and see the orientation teacher individually. **(This process presented with ethical challenges - see discussion in Section 3.6.3)**
2. Selection of Participants Select participants who indicated an interest in participating.	**2. Selection of Participants** Orientation teacher selected participants, who indicated an interest in participation and requested them to provide forms to their parents. It is not known how the teacher explained the reasons for non-selection to the participants**.** **(This process also presented with ethical challenges - see discussion in Section 3.6.3)**
DATA COLLECTION PROCESS	
1. Permission I will apply for permission from the Department of Educational Psychology (UP) and the Gauteng Department of Education to have access to participants in secondary schools in Tembisa.	**1. Permission** I gained permission before sampling from the Department of Educational Psychology (UP) with Ethical Clearance number **EP 17/04/17/04/04** and Gauteng Department of Education to have access of participants in secondary schools in Tembisa (**See Annexure A**).
2. Explanation of research project I meet with the participants and their parent where I explain the purpose of the study and the requirements. I will allow the parent and the participant to ask questions and get clarity until they are comfortable about taking part in the study.	**2. Explanation of research project** Once an agreement was reached between the parent and the participant the invitation was signed (**See Annexure B** for an example of a signed letter) and sent back to me. I contacted the participant's parent and scheduled a meeting. I met with the participant and their parent at their home and proceeded as planned.
3. Observations I will note down the features in each neighbourhood that my participants' reside in. I will also observe how the participants interact with their family members and myself, how they	**3. Observations** Proceeded as planned.

ORIGINAL PLAN	MODIFICATIONS TO THE PLAN
conduct themselves in the home and during the interview.	
4. Semi-structured interviews I will conduct semi-structured individual interviews at the privacy of the participants' homes in Tembisa during the month of September 2017**.**	**4. Semi-structured interviews** Proceeded as planned. The two interviews lasted approximately 35 minutes each excluding the time taken for gathering background information (**See Annexure E** for example of background form) which were approximately 13 minutes each and 15 minutes for the activities.
5. Transcription Interviews will be transcribed verbatim as well as the observation notes.	**5. Transcription** Proceeded as planned, (**See Annexure D** for transcriptions)
	6. Follow up interviews A telephonic interview was conducted for both participants individually for approximately 10 minutes each. The purpose of the second interview was to further explore ideas, get clarity on certain words and confirm concepts derived from the transcription.
	7. Addressing Ethical challenges that occurred during the sampling phase above I took the steps outlined below, to manage these challenges. **Step 1: Consulted the supervisor** I consulted with my supervisor to reflect and guide me with regards to how we can resolve some of the ethical challenges that occurred during the sampling of participants. **Step 2: Consulted the Ethics Committee** My supervisor advised me to approach the University's Ethics Committee for a consultation about the ethical breach that occurred. **Step 3: Implemented suggestions by supervisor and Ethics Committee** After consulting both my supervisor and the Ethics Committee I implemented their suggestions, which

ORIGINAL PLAN	MODIFICATIONS TO THE PLAN
	include: a. Contacting the other four participants who showed interest in the study but were not selected. b. Conducting debriefing sessions with each of the four learners individually and discussing the study with them. (**See Annexure C** for assent for debriefing session). c. After the debriefing sessions, I opened the option for participation in the study in a focus group discussion that three learners accepted to be part of. **8. Recruitment of participants for Focus group discussion interview** Participants were given a deadline of two days, from the day they received the invite, to return it to the school indicating their response to the invitation along with all their contact information filled out **(See Annexure B** for Invite to research study for Focus group discussion). I contacted the parents telephonically, informed them of the purpose of the study and the requirements. I allowed the parent to ask questions and get clarity until they were comfortable about allowing their child to take part in the study. (**See Annexure C** for Consent form). **9. Focus group discussion interview** I conducted a focus group discussion interview in the life orientation teacher's office. The interview lasted 1 hour and 20 minutes. **10. Transcription** Transcription of the focus group interview verbatim.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

3.4.1 Sampling Frame

Purposive sampling was used and a sample frame set to assist with the selection of potential participants (Wahyuni, 2012), including selection criteria that stated that potential participants should (i) be from the ages 14-18; (ii) in grade 9; (iii) residing in Tembisa; and (iv) not have their biological fathers present in their lives. I specifically included participants aged 14 to 18 years for developmental reasons, seeing that adolescents in this age range tend to grapple with identity-related tasks (Erikson, 1963) and therefore were assumed to have many concerns related to how they construct identity and the role of their parents in identity-construction (McLean & Syed, 2015). Potential participants had to be those whose fathers are not physically and/or emotionally and socially present. They could have a father figure who might have been another family member (uncle, brother, grandfather) present in their lives. I felt that this would allow for rich information when the participants used their father figures as a source of reference and comparison when talking about their perceptions of father involvement.

3.4.2 Participant Characteristics

The two participants selected for the semi-structured interviews consisted of a boy and a girl, both in grade 9 at one of the local community schools in Tembisa. Table 3.3 below provides details of the two participants.

Table 3.3: Semi-structured Interview Participant Information

	AGE	GENDER	RACE	FATHER STATUS	WHO PARTICIPANT LIVES WITH
P1*	15	Female	Black	Biological father is deceased (2015)	Mother, older brother and younger sister
P2*	16	Male	Black	Knows biological father but he is absent in his life	Mother, older sister and niece

* P1 = Participant 1 P2 = Participant 2

3.4.3 Participants for Focus Group Discussion Interview

Three participants were selected in the modified design, after the debriefing session, to participate in the focus group discussion interview. They comprised grade 9 learners at the same secondary school as participants in the semi-structured interviews. Below, Table 3.4 gives general details.

Table 3.4: Focus Group Participant Information

PARTICIPANT	AGE	GENDER	RACE	FATHER STATUS	WHO PARTICIPANT LIVES WITH
P1	16	Female	Black	Never known biological father and stepfather is deceased.	Mother
P2	15	Female	Black	Knows biological father but he is absent in her life.	Mother, grandmother, grandfather, cousin and uncle.
P3	16	Male	Black	Father is away due to work commitments in another province but he is present in his life.	Mother, cousins

Having dealt with a description of participant selection and identifying details in this section, in the following section I describe the data collection instruments I used.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

In this section I describe the data collection instruments used in the study, namely, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussion interview in the modified design.

3.5.1 Socratic dialogue as a questioning Framework for interviews

All interviews were designed according to the Socratic dialogue approach to facilitate open-ended probing questioning (See **Annexure E** for interview schedules). This type of questioning promotes and facilitates a reciprocal flow of information between participants and myself. Socratic questioning allowed for a flow of conversations as participants critically thought about what was being asked and the thought processes that ultimately shaped their opinions. This type of questioning also facilitated independent thinking as I rephrased questions as reflections, clarifications and direct statements and allowed for latitude in the range of

acceptable answers from my participants as they integrated and synthesized different sources of information (Overholser, 1993; Schiller, 2008). The Socratic questioning framework includes memory, translational questions, interpretation, application, questions, synthesis and evaluation questions (Overholser, 1993). In the table below I present the questions I used for probing during the semi-structured interviews and the focus group discussion interview.

Table 3.5: Probing Questions For Interviews

SOCRATIC QUESTION-ING FORMAT	DESCRIPTION OF SOCRATIC QUESTION (OVERHOLSER, 1993)	PROBING QUESTION IN THE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW	PROBING QUESTION IN THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION INTERVIEW
Memory	Gets participants to recall and recognize information to help them answer the question. E.g. When was the last time it happened?	Tell me about a typical day in your life.	Do you each have a special memory of your father? Please tell me about it.
Translational	Changing the information into a different but similar form. E.g. What does it mean to you?	I was wondering, what does it mean to have a father according to you?	This study is about fathers and what it means when they are not in our lives. I would like you to share what you think about fathers and children?
Interpretation	Helps participants be aware and discover relationships. E.g. How do they differ?	What is so special about fathers when compared to mothers?	If a father is absent what sort of things get affected in the home?
Application	Requires participants to apply their prior knowledge and problem-solving skills. Eg. How will you go about making these changes?	Does a father have to live in the same house as you to be involved in your upbringing?	What are the kinds of things can children talk to their fathers about?
Analysis	Engages participants in problem-solving mode. It teaches deductive reasoning to reach logical conclusions. Eg. Are there things that make it worse?	What kinds of support do you think a father provides for their child?	What are the kinds of things children can talk to their fathers about?
SOCRATIC QUESTION-ING FORMAT	**DESCRIPTION OF SOCRATIC QUESTION (OVERHOLSER, 1993)**	**PROBING QUESTION IN THE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW**	**PROBING QUESTION IN THE FOCUS GROUP**

			DISCUSSION INTERVIEW
Synthesis	Encourages creative thinking without a predetermined answer. Eg. What other way can you look at this?	If your father was alive/ present, what sort of special things do you think you would do together?	In our community, we know that some fathers are not present in their children's lives, therefore, I was wondering, what is the difference between a life of a child with a present father and a life of a child with an absent father?
Evaluation	Gets participants to make informed decisions by making value judgements. Eg. What does it mean to you to be a success?	With all that we have talked about, what do you think father involvement is?	With all that we have talked about, what do you think father involvement is?

Socratic questioning format and description adapted from Overholser, (1993)

Socratic questioning during the interviews encouraged participants to respond with open-ended answers (Breakwell, Smith & Wright, 2012, p. 393) so I probed with "what" questions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006), such as those presented above in Table 3.5. Consequently, I was able to ensure that important information was covered while getting insights from my participants (Cohen at al., 2011; Mertens, 1998). They had the freedom to express themselves and refrain from not answering questions that made them feel uncomfortable (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Once I had generated an interview schedule for both the semi-structured interviews and the focus group discussion interview I conducted the interviews with the participants. The following sections describe how these interviews were facilitated.

3.5.2 Semi-structured Interviews

Interviews in qualitative studies are direct interactions that are flexible and adaptable between the researcher and the participants (Agarwal, 2020; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). In qualitative studies there are three subcategories of interviews, namely: i) structured; ii) semi-structured; and iii) unstructured (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Semi-structured interviews facilitated prompting in line with the research topic (Agarwal, 2020; Willig, 2008). My choice of conducting semi-structured interviews over questionnaires ensured that I was able to engage with my participants and observe non-verbal behaviour as they responded, so that I could divert

to a comfortable language if they struggled to express themselves in English (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). The only disadvantage of semi-structured interviews is that they are labour-intensive and time-consuming, so I opted for a smaller sample than in the original research plan.

3.5.3 Focus group discussion interview

A focus group discussion interview is a source of data collecting technique that enabled me as the researcher to investigate and portray the perspectives that existed in the Tembisa community (Liamputtong, 2011; Mackay, Woodsong, McQueen & Namey, 2005). This form of data collecting technique made it possible for a stimulating social environment for the participants in the modified design. Engaging in this discussion gave the picture of father involvement in Tembisa more distinct dimensions as I obtained perceptions and experiences from different angles (Mosia, 2014). I produced a seating chart to enable me to keep track of which participant responded to a question (Mackay, Woodsong, McQueen & Namey, 2005) as I conducted the focus group discussion interview. I assigned participants numbers to track responses as well as assist in my note-taking during the session (see **Annexure H** for Seating chart).

During the introductory phase of the focus group discussion interview I dealt with the background information of the study and discussed confidentiality issues within focus group settings that included respecting each other's privacy and anonymity. The reason for conducting a focus group discussion rather than individual interviews with these participants was that, in addition to illuminating group opinion, I was able to share a large amount of information over a relatively short time. I was also able to discover variations within my participants as they had differing views and experiences immediately within the discussion. I probed further, which resulted in a rich source of data from a broad range of views on the topic of father involvement. However, a limitation with conducting a focus group discussion interview was that it restricted me from acquiring in-depth information on highly personal and sensitive issues (Liamputtong, 2011).

After engagement with the participants I generated two sets of data sources, which I will briefly discuss below.

3.5.4 Data sources

Braun and Clarke (2006) describe data as information collected from a particular project through differing avenues. I collected it by means of interviews and observations to help me answer my research question and better understand how my participants experienced a lack of father involvement. Table 3.6 (below) illustrates the time invested in conducting the interviews, observations and transcriptions.

Table 3.6: Data Sources

DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUE	DURATION	NUMBER OF INTERVIEWS	PAGES OF DATA TRANSCRIBED
Semi-structured interviews	1 hr 32 mins	4	50
Focus group discussion interview	1 hr 20 mins	1	55

3.5.5 Observations

Observation is a method for collecting data about how social settings are constructed, including interactions between people, influences of the physical environment, the context in which people live and the process involved. Qualitative researchers conduct observations during the research process by means of taking field notes to remember and record behaviours during the interview, activities, physical features in the environment and interactions. The aim of making observations was to contribute to the data collection and analysis processes, particularly when it supplemented the interview data as evidence for understanding the phenomenon of father involvement (Mulhall, 2003; Schwandt, 2015).

Kawulich (2006) argues that what is going to be observed influences the type of observation process that will be followed. He describes three types of observation processes as follows:

1) **Descriptive observation** is where the researcher observes any and everything without a set structure or focus. He or she presumes to know nothing and so attempts to document as much about the participant as possible, but therefore runs the risk of collecting raw data that is not related to the study (McKechnie, 2007).
2) **Focused observation** is supported by interviews. The researcher is guided by the participants' comments and insights to make a decision on what to focus when writing field notes.

3) **Selective observation** is considered to be systematic as the researcher looks at different types of activities to determine the differences between them.

I followed the focused observation strategy based on the insights from my participants, my prior theoretical knowledge together with how my conceptual framework was informed by observations (Kawulich, 2006; McKechnie, 2007). My notes for observations during the individual interviews were narratives as I described the physical settings, dates and participants' interactions, characters and activities in context (McKechnie, 2007; Mulhall, 2003;). For example, through the observations I was able to record the differences in living home circumstances of my participants, which gave valuable information that would otherwise not be transparent from the interviews. I was observant of everything I saw and heard so as to get a holistic picture of my participants' lives with the anticipation of making a comparison between them along with important emergent themes (McKechnie, 2007) (see **Annexure G** for observation notes and reflective notes). Through observations, I was able to be part of my participants' worldviews as I also visited their homes for the individual interviews (Cohen at al., 2011).

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is perceived as a complex phase in qualitative research as it dictates and has the blueprint of how the study was carried out. In this section, I make it clear to the reader of what I did, why I did it and the description of the analysis methods (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). As a researcher I conducted an analysis to develop a set of themes and associated characteristics (Tuckett, 2006) and so developed themes through thematic analysis, which is a strategy that searches for patterns of experience and produces a description of those patterns and the overarching design that unites them (Ayres, 2012).

3.6.1 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis can be used across a range of epistemologies and is flexible towards different studies, and I was able to derive themes associated with the participants' experiences, understandings, and perceptions of father involvement. It is easier to use for new researchers and allows them to summarize important information. I was able to look at the similarities and differences, as well as generate unanticipated insights (Fugard & Potts, 2015; Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). It involves identifying codes, categories and themes that systematically link with intricacies of the topic (Braun, Clarke, & Rance, 2015; Krauss, 2005),

and the discernment of codes involves observing the information, recognizing the important events and moments, seeing them as important, interpreting then labelling them. A theme is identified when a pattern begins to emerge in the data underlying the phenomenon (Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2017). According to Braun and Clarke (2006) the "keyness" of a theme is focused not solely on extracting quantifiable measures but rather on showing unique information about the research question. Fugard and Potts (2015) argue that a theme should not only capture important information about the research question but also highlight the patterned responses of participants with the data.

Data in thematic analysis can be derived inductively, which involves the detailed reading of the raw data to see concepts and themes through interpretations (Thomas, 2006). I analysed data through inductive thematic analysis techniques because my study is interpretivist research. During the data analysis process, I generated codes and themes inductively by analysing the data without any pre-set themes and focused on obtaining them from the data set as they conceptually matched the phenomenon (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Fick, 2009; Green, 2012; Mulhall, 2003).

3.6.2 Steps of Thematic Analysis

Thomas (2017) explains that during thematic analysis decisions need to be made by the researcher with regards to how they will carry out the analysis process. Before I started to analyse my data sets I had to decide what counts as a code, what would be seen as a theme, determine what portion would be coded (single word, full paragraph, entire page of text), the type of coding (open coding vs vivo coding) and whether I would identify themes at an explicit or interpretive level (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012). I followed the six steps of retrieving themes listed by Braun and Clarke (2006), as in Table 3.7 below.

Table 3.7: Phases Of Thematic Analysis

PHASE	DESCRIPTION OF PHASE
1. Familiarising myself with the data	Transcribing and translating the data, rereading it and noting down initial ideas. Reading the observation notes and noting down ideas and thoughts.
2. Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.

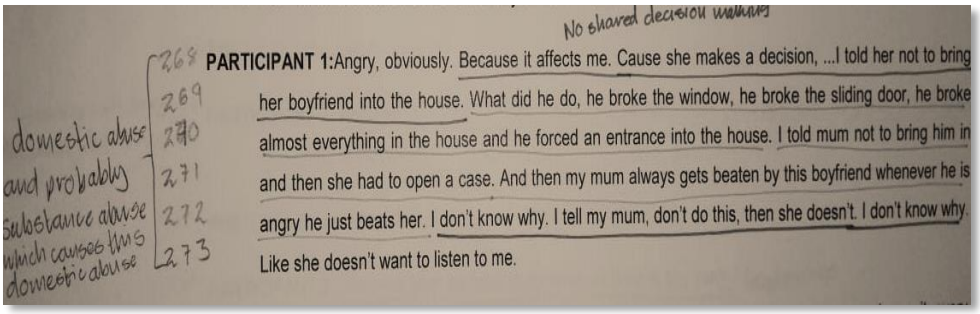
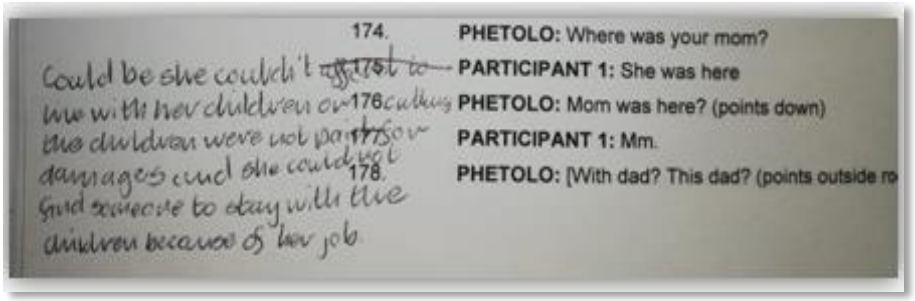
PHASE	DESCRIPTION OF PHASE
3. Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme based on how it relates to the father involvement phenomena. Generating thematic maps for relations in themes.
4. Reviewing themes	Checking in the themes work in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set.
5. Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells; generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, the final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

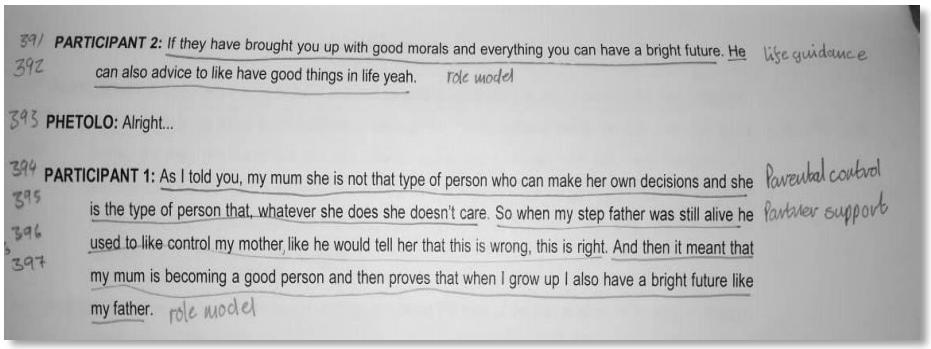
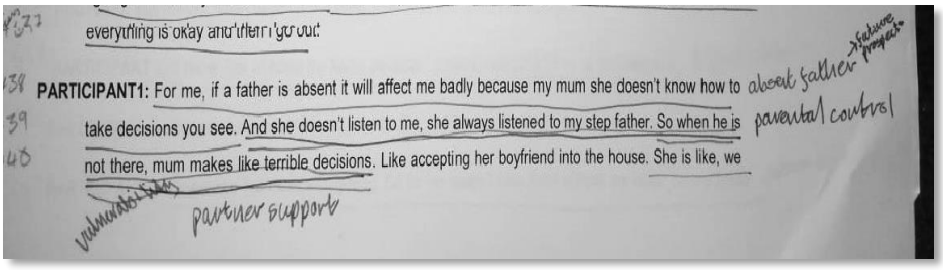
Adapted from Braun & Clarke, 2006 p. 35

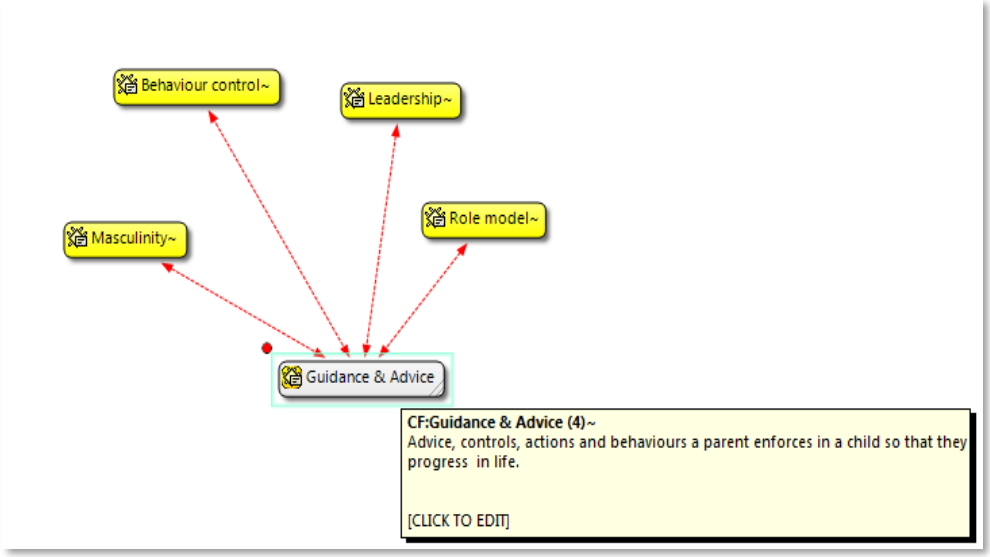
Table 3.8 lists descriptions of the steps followed during the inductive thematic analysis, which involved moving back and forth between the six steps as I worked through the data. I applied the steps to *Atlas.ti* software programme, which is a concept database that allows a researcher to create, enter codes and organize them for large volumes of data. I initially analysed the data manually then proceeded to use *Atlas.ti*.

Table 3.8: Data Analysis Process

PHASES	DESCRIPTION
Familiarising myself with the data	Data was transcribed verbatim as I orientated myself with it. Transcribing it myself gave me the chance to derive an in-depth meaning of the text as well as refer to the observations of which I had taken took conscious note. I read and re-read the transcripts for meaning as patterns were shaped each time I read. On the left-hand side of the transcripts I jotted down my perspectives, developing theories, pre-existing thoughts and ideas for codes, before I started doing any formal coding. Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules, (2017) advise researchers to jot down these thoughts and impressions of what data means and how it relates to other data as a method to help the supervisor and other researchers examine how thoughts and ideas evolved. Below are examples of the jottings I made while reading through the transcripts.

PHASES	DESCRIPTION
	 
Generating initial codes:	I had a page with a copy of the research question, the secondary questions and purpose of the study. I did this to remind myself about why I was analysing the data as I interacted with it, because ultimately the results I obtained should relate to the research question. The manual coding included an intuitive coding process through which I was familiarising myself with the data processing. I systematically searched for codes and gave each piece of raw data equal attention. This involved decoding and reflecting on a passage of data to decipher its core meaning then proceeding to determine its appropriate code and label it (Saldana, 2009). When coding, I gave labels to text that related to the issue in the data and text that captured the qualitative richness of father involvement (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). I coded the entire data sets manually and wrote the codes on the margin of the scripts with the segments of the text representing the code highlighted in the same colour. Colour was randomly assigned to codes to a text for purposes of easily identifying illustrative examples that I would use later in the report. I also used colour because sometimes I assigned more than one code to a segment of text. I generated codes using open coding, which according to Blair (2015) involves applying codes that are derived straight from the text (emergent codes). I also coded segments that deviated from the father involvement phenomenon because they could be insightful later (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). Below are some examples of the coding process.

PHASES	DESCRIPTION
	  I used a data management tool (Atlas.ti) for the actual coding of the data sets because this helped me sort and organize my data (assign brief descriptions to codes) as I replicated what I did during the intuitive coding process. As I did this, I engaged more with the data and derived more codes that I had not previously noticed. After coding I compiled a long list of initial codes from the Atlas.ti data set and this served as the collating process.
Searching for themes:	Codes were sorted and organized into potential themes. Saldana (2009) writes that themes are coded data organized and grouped together because they share some characteristics. Therefore, I generated themes inductively from the data set as they conceptually matched aspects of the phenomenon (Green, 2012). However, I did this systematically by developing a rule of inclusion (see Annexure I for List of Codes, Quotes and Description) for each theme by developing descriptions together with samples of data which I was able to generate through Atlas.ti. This process helped me determine themes as well as judge their relevance (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017) and thematic maps facilitated the process of exploring and showing the relationships between themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Below is an example of a thematic map with an inclusion description for codes that fall under this theme.

PHASES	DESCRIPTION
	 I had an A4 page titled "miscellaneous," in which I wrote all the codes that did not fall in any of the identified themes.
Reviewing themes:	Themes were refined by means of returning to each coded text extract per theme and evaluating whether they appeared in a coherent pattern (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). I ensured that there were identifiable distinctions between themes by combining them if they had similar meanings or separating them if they had differing or conflicting descriptions (Braun & Clarke, 2006).
Defining and naming themes:	This phase involved refining and defining themes, describing what each was about, to obtain an understanding of how each fitted into the overall story with regards to the research question. Therefore, I considered each theme in itself and in relation to others to ensure that there was little overlap (Braun & Clarke, 2006).
Producing the report:	The final phase of inductive analysis, the report write-up, is presented in Chapter four, and will produce a logical and concise account of data within and across themes, as well as showing how data extracts corresponded with themes to answer the research questions.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Each stage in a research project has the potential of having ethical problems as the researcher strives to obtain valid and reliable data. Consequently, it is essential that ethical dilemmas are extrapolated as a way to consider the likely social benefits of the study against the personal costs to the individuals taking part (Cohen at al., 2011). There are four principles in social inquiries to which I had to adhere for maximum benefits of the research and to

minimize harm to my participants. I ensured that before conducting interviews with the participants I discussed the ethical issues relating to confidentiality, voluntary participation, right to withdraw and anonymity with the parents and participants (see **Annexure C**). I discuss these points in more detail in the sections to follow.

3.7.1 Ethical Clearance

Prior to conducting my study, I submitted an application for Ethical Clearance to the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee, which was approved (**EP 17/04/04**). In addition, the Gauteng Department of Education permitted access by participants to secondary schools in Tembisa (see **Annexure A**). The following ethical issues were considered in my application:

1. The purpose of the study would be explained to the participants verbally and it also appeared on the informed consent form.
2. Participants would take part in the study based on their free will. If participants wanted to exit the interview or not answer a question they could freely without restrictions.
3. Due to the sensitivity of the topic I was to ensure confidentiality. I would keep my records secure and clients would stay anonymous in the research.
4. Participation was to be voluntary.
5. I would aspire to ensure that all participants involved in the study would be safe from harm and ensure their wellbeing.
6. I would treat the participants with respect and dignity and refrain from discrimination.

3.7.2 Autonomy

Autonomy is the capacity to think, decide and act on one's own free will (Iphofen & Tolich, 2018; Townsend, Cox & Li, 2010). According to Hammersley & Traianou (2012), it involves gaining informed consent, confidentiality and voluntary participation. After receiving the clearance from the Ethics Committee and before commencing any work in the study, I explicitly informed the participants and their parent about the purpose of the research. I explained the design of the research as well as any potential risks and benefits for participating (Willig & Rogers, 2011). I also made them aware of voluntary participation and the right to withdraw from the study at any time. I went on to sign an agreement between myself and the parent (consent form) and myself and the child (assent form) to indicate their understanding of the nature of the research and willingness to participate.

To address confidentiality, participants were likely to be identified due to the way they were initially selected, I used pseudonyms to reference them participants, thus decreasing the risk of identification whilst maintaining the integrity of the data (Saunders, Kitzinger & Kitzinger, 2015).

3.7.3 Beneficence and Non-maleficence

Beneficence and Non-maleficence require the researcher to provide benefits for participants and to protect them against risks and harm (Townsend, Cox & Li, 2010). Therefore, I had to consider future harm because it could not be reliably anticipated and it was imperative that I chose carefully the information that was safe to retain in the report and would not become identifying in the future. I had to foresee the possibility that this unanticipated future harm could result from the publication of the dissertation, and as a result families going to court for child maintenance or domestic abuse (Saunders, Kitzinger & Kitzinger, 2015). While conducting the interviews I took care to recognize when probing would upset my participant. What seemed straightforward questions to me might have elicited an adverse emotional response, so I would cease probing.

Table 3.9: Reflection On Ethical Conduct

REFLECTION ON MY ETHICAL CONDUCT
It came to my attention during meetings with my supervisor that there were grey areas that I missed and therefore constituted an ethical breach with regards to how I recruited and selected my participants. I did not thoroughly consider what may constitute to harm in terms of non-maleficence in ethical practices. I realised that when recruiting my participants, I might have created social and emotional discomfort to learners when responding to the invitation by the teacher. For Fouka and Mantzorou (2011), researchers should prevent intentional harm and minimise potential harm, but I did not consider all possible consequences of how I had planned to recruit my participants. Learners could be victimised for not having a father present and/or have “old wounds” opened. Recruitment and selection of participants must be carried out in a fair and equal manner as part of the ethical principles of research (The Science of Improving People’s Lives, 2018). This forms part of the third principle which dictates that participants be treated equally, regardless of their characteristics (Alzheimer Europe, 2010). Nevertheless, the way my participants were selected did not reflect a fair procedure as some of the learners were just turned away without being given an

REFLECTION ON MY ETHICAL CONDUCT

opportunity to tell their stories about family life. They would have felt they had contributed to the study in some degree and not feel discriminated against.

Finally, the orientation teacher made the selection of the participants, which, according to the ethical protocol approved by the University, should have been my responsibility as researcher. I was committed to protecting learners from any harm that might arise from being an identifiable person as well as upholding their privacy and confidentiality (Bernard Lo & Mary Ellen O'Connell, 2005; Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011). I realise that I should have met with the six learners and decided for myself who I would include in my study as I was more informed about my research topic and who would contribute instrumental and useful information.

Sitting down and reviewing my sampling procedure with the supervisor gave me an opportunity to reflect and evolve my researching skills and ethical knowledge. I learned a valuable lesson that I should intensely analyse and evaluate every step before carrying it out, particularly when working with minors.

3.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS

According to Cope (2014), trustworthiness is a way of facilitating the usefulness and integrity of qualitative results, whilst for Wigginton and Lee (2014) in qualitative research it is a strategy that allows one to examine the accurate reflection of participants' experiences. According to Connelly (2014, p. 435), "trustworthiness or rigour of a study refers to the degree of confidence in data, interpretation, and methods used to ensure the quality of a study." Silverman (2001) devised strategies which can incorporate measures that deal with trustworthiness, five procedures being credibility, dependability, confirmability, transferability and authenticity. In the following paragraphs I demonstrate how I adhered to these in ensuring trustworthiness.

3.8.1 Credibility

Credibility relates to internal validity in qualitative studies with focus on ensuring that what is intended to be measured is tested (Iphofen & Tolich, 2018). Therefore, in qualitative studies, this is equivalent to finding how congruent the findings are to reality (Andres, 2012; Shenton, 2004). One of the techniques in guaranteeing credibility is through triangulation, that is the use of several methods of data collection, in this study the standard procedures known to be used in case studies (Connelly, 2016) were interviews, observations and member checking

(Polit & Beck, 2014). According to Shenton (2004), using different methods allows for compensations for individual limitations and benefits.

I also sourced external verification to assess the credibility of my findings, holding frequent meetings and communications with my research supervisor to widen my vision through experiences in the research field, perceptions and suggestions for alternative approaches for the study. My supervisor has been involved in the research process, including the literature and theoretical scrutiny, data collection, data analysis and the writing up of the report. External verification also involved asking my peers to review and identify any flaws and probes to test my bias or preference. I also used dual translation from vernacular to English and vice versa with my peers because investment in the research may inhibit detached viewing (Shenton, 2004).

Member checking is conducted to ensure credibility in research studies (Shenton, 2004), based on an assumption that a researcher is influenced by subjective life experiences when entering the setting with a specific purpose and position. As Kornbluh (2015) writes, being in such a position has a great potential to influence the analysis and therefore validity of the study, so to negate my bias I corroborated participant perspectives by repeating the comments for clarity and summarising them when I required further elaboration. After the interviews I telephoned the participants to clarify meanings of words they had used and probed further where I was not certain of their response in the first interview.

3.8.2 Dependability

Dependability in quantitative studies relies on the stability of the data over time, as with reliability (Connelly, 2016). According to Durrheim and Painter (2006), it will allow the reader to replicate the study using the same methods, however, as Connelly (2016) stresses, it is sensitive to the stability of conditions dependent on the nature of the study. For instance, a study of a phenomenon experienced by a student may be similar over time while one of a programme instituted at a school may see conditions change. Andres (2012) advises that credibility goes far in ensuring dependability through triangulation, the steps and processes executed towards which have been documented in this present Chapter. This chapter (3) is written with the aim of strengthening the dependability of this study by giving a step-by-step framework of procedures and activities (Shenton, 2004), guiding a researcher who wishes to replicate it consistently and apply the methods accurately.

3.8.3 Confirmability

Confirmability revolves around objectivity in a study and involves having measures in place that reflect accurately the findings of the research (Polit & Beck, 2014). A measure I employed for remaining aware of my bias when collecting data and interpreting results due to prior experiences, opinions and insights was taking notes within my observations (see **Annexure G** for observation and reflection notes). In my reflective notes I reflected my thoughts and interpretations of events before, during and after a process was completed. This 'paper trail' of my reflections helped me track and guard against my preconceived thoughts and anticipated outcomes. Ensuring conformability necessitates the use of instruments that are not dependent on human skill or perception (Trochim, Donnelly & Arora, 2016). I used inductive thematic analysis to analyse data, ascertaining that codes, themes, and findings were acquired directly from the raw data.

3.8.4 Transferability

Transferability looks at the degree to which findings are useful to people in other settings (Connelly, 2016), and is compared by Shenton (2004) to external validity in quantitative research, indicating the extent to which findings are generalised. My study sample was small therefore my findings and conclusions cannot with certainty be applied to other populations (Leung, 2015), notably so because naturalistic inquiries use observations that are specific to the context in which they occur (Shenton, 2004). Consequently, my study had five participants from within a small geographical area in Tembisa.

Connelly (2004) argues that qualitative research is not only about generalisation, but rather the main focus is on generating rich and detailed descriptions of the text, location and the people studied. Amankwaa (2016) adds that the rationale for qualitative research is to leave scholars with a vivid picture that informs and helps them resonate with the results. As such, my study allows adolescents in similar contexts to determine similarity of the findings to their situation (Polit & Beck, 2014). I built a foundation for transferability by providing detailed information on how and why the study was conducted, in Chapters 1, 3 and 4. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study and makes recommendations.

3.8.5 Authenticity

The criterion of authenticity requires investigation of the extent to which the researcher fairly and completely illustrates the realities and lives of the participants (Polit & Beck, 2014). I have ensured this by sampling participants without fathers and giving detailed descriptions of the steps taken (Chapter 3). Having this in place allows me to give the reader a deeper meaning and understanding of father involvement in South Africa (Connelly, 2004).

CHAPTER 4 - RESULTS, DISCUSSIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 focuses on the reporting of results obtained through inductive thematic analysis, as indicated in Chapter 3. They will be represented as themes, sub-themes and categories, to illustrate how father involvement is perceived by adolescents. The categories will be supported with sample extracts from interviews that were conducted with participants. Following, I also answer the research questions and indicate the contributions of this study to the body of literature around father involvement. In conclusion, I highlight the limitations of the present study as well as make recommendations.

4.2 RESEARCH RESULTS FROM THEMATIC DATA ANALYSIS

During data analysis in Chapter 3 the study's conceptual framework found in Chapter 2 was utilised to assist when categorising factors that delineated role functioning in families. This section is a summary of the results arising from the data with a breakdown of the emerging themes.

4.2.1 Summary of Results

The dimension of the McMaster Model of Family Functioning was considered as a tool to help investigate the roles and responsibilities of an involved father. The choice was based on the dimension's pragmatism and cultural sensitivity as it did not direct whose roles should be carried out by whom, but rather focused on fulfilling all the family needs in order for it to function effectively. Also, the role functioning dimension encompasses all other McMaster dimensions as it addresses affective needs and instrumental needs as well as a combination of the two sets, dictating that adherence to the needs of the family involves carrying out three tasks. Therefore, a father has a role that addresses basic tasks, developmental or hazardous tasks (Ryan et al., 2005). Table 4.1 (below) is a summary of the themes obtained through thematic analysis that illustrate role functioning of an involved father.

Table 4.1: Summary Of Thematic Analysis Results

THEME	SUB-THEME	CATEGORY	CODE	INSTANCES
IMPACT OF FATHER PRESENCE/ ABSENCE ON THE CHILD	**PRESENT FATHER**	Life skill development	Role Model Masculinity Guidance and advice Academically Invested	11 8 8 5
	PHYSICALLY PRESENT FATHER	Nurturing and support	Emotional Support Parent-child bond Recreational activities Feeling Loved	10 15 6 8
	ABSENT FATHER	Lack of nurturing and support	Closed up Estranged Relationship	7 5
FATHER CONTRIBUT-ION TOWARDS THE FAMILY		Maintenance and Management of family system	Partner Support Protector Provision of Stability	2 12 3
		Provision of resources	Support Providing Financially Expected Duty	10 8 6
	ABSENTEEISM OF FATHER	Breakdown in maintenance and management of the family system	Lack of Parental Control Risk Extended Family Assistance	5 15 5
FAMILY FUNCTION-ING	**FAMILY PATTERNS**	Role Allocation	Role Sharing Role Substitution Leadership Nurturing Nature	6 7 8 4
		Role Accountability	Breadwinner Working mum	7 5

4.2.2 Research Results

To guide the discussion of results I provide a breakdown of the themes, sub-themes, categories and extracts from the transcripts of the raw data that support them. However, due to the voluminous amount of data collected, the extracts provided to support the results are only a selected few. For additional support for the research results refer to **Annexure H**, a List of Codes, Quotes and Descriptions. Table 4.2 (below) represents the research results with the supporting extracts.

Table 4.2: Research Results With Supporting Extracts

THEME 1: IMPACT ON THE CHILD				
Sub-theme	**Categories**	**Code**	**Extracts from transcripts that represent identifying codes**	**Document extract is located**
Present Father	Life skill development	Academically invested	"Yes, my step father had an influence cause he would want to know what happens at school anytime I come back home."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line -56
			"Yes, he also helps me with schoolwork."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -27
			"I think a father is someone who protects his family and guides boys when they come into a certain stage where they would be men, and give them more information about life."-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-17
			"Uhhmmm... let me say.....based on my career, he wanted me to be a lawyer then it was inside me...."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line -68
		Guidance and advice	"Oh, like the father guides you to be a man."-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 2, Line-2
			"I think I would know more about being a guy and have feelings that …"-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-24
			"Your dad is a man, he knows how men think, how they feel. He is going to tell you man's emotions and feelings."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-106
			"Telling me that if your a man you need to work hard. You need to work when you are a man. There is no time for games."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-96

			"...and guides boys when they come into a certain stage where they would be men, and give them more information about life."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-120
		Masculinity	"Yes the guy inspires me"-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-9
			"If they have brought you up with good morals and everything you can have a bright future."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-62
		Role Model	"A child who grows up in that situation will know how a woman should be treated. His actions will show. He could be a leader whereby when his father is not available then he could be able to run the house the same way his father did, and take care of the family."-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-38
			"Okay the influence. I'd say it's a good influence because the way he talks to people is the way I talk to people because the guy is so calm..."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-59
			"Yes, because of, as for me, I respect ladies as much as my father does."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-61
	Nurturing and support	Emotional support	"Yoohh, he sometimes like, when I'm angry he is the one that understands, like who can talk to me back."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 2, Line -9
			"Also that if things happen to go wrong in my life then he could support me until things become normal again"-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-35
			"Having a shoulder to cry on when he is around"-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line -54

			"He would want to know if something is wrong, if I need something, he would care soo much. Whenever I got sick, he would leave whatever he was doing to come to school when I was still in primary."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line -57
			"It makes me feel good hey"-P1	Sepedi individual interview 2, Line-13
			"Feeling loved, protected, yeah...it feels good"-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line -53
			"Yeah to show that he loves you. Show that he cares."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line -115
		Feeling loved	"I was soo happy. I loved seeing my mum and dad so happy. They were soo happy, they were connecting too."P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line -118
			"Yes, that made me feel so important, valuable."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line -122
		Parent child bond	"We like to laugh; we like to play"-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -31
			"We go out; we go shopping; we play; we cook."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -25
			"And when you are at home you could talk to your child and tell them the problems that both as parents are going through and what makes the situation tense in the house"-P1	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-37
			"Your father has to be your friend so you have to talk to him when you have problems, yeah. And if you don't have any father I don't know like....."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-100

			"I enjoyed playing with his WIFI, playing games, what else. The talks."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-119
		Recreational activities	"Sometimes he buys us nice things or take us to places like Gold Reef City"-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -23
			"Oh yeah, on my birthday. Last of last year my dad took me to Emperor's Palace for the first time. It was a surprise actually. "-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line-116
			"Long drives, visit some restaurants and eat, aaa....mxiim! ..."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-123
Absent Father	Lack of nurturing and support	Closed up	"I keep my feelings inside me."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -11
			"… I can't talk with my father about my problems"-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -32
		Estranged relationship	"If I don't want to talk, if I don't talk to you, don't talk to me. Yeah and like sometimes you see mum can be soo annoying like she tells me stuff that I don't want to hear like her problems and I don't want to hear because my mum has a lot of problems. So I prefer being alone."	Focus group discussion interview, Line -3
			"I don't think when my father would come here. I don't have any connection and I feel nothing"-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-18
			"As for my father, he is not someone that I could publicly say he's close to my heart."-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-31

			Researcher: So you talk through text with your dad? How often do you guys talk? “I don’t know. Like “hi” hello”, that’s all.”-P2	IsiZulu interview 1, Line-8-9
THEME 2: FATHER CONTRIBUTION TOWARDS THE FAMILY				
Sub-theme	**Categories**	**Code**	**Extracts from transcripts that represent identifying codes**	**Document extract is located**
Physically Present Father	Maintenance and Management of Family System	Partner support	“As I told you, my mum she is not that type of person who can make her own decisions and she is the type of person that, whatever she does she doesn’t care. So when my step father was still alive he used to like control my mother like he would tell her that this is wrong, this is right.”-P1 “So when he is not there, mum makes like terrible decisions.”-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line-63 Focus group discussion interview, Line-73
		Protector	“...who makes sure that his family does not face challenges inside and outside the home. If there’s something missing or lacking he will go and provide that thing, not go outside and tell everyone what is happening in the house.”-P1 “I think a father is someone who protects his family...”-P2 “It’s a male figure who has to be always there family. To protect...”-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -17 IsiZulu interview 1, Line-17 Focus group discussion interview, Line-43

			"Father. Is a man who is supposed to be the shield of the family. A man who is going to sacrifice anything just to make sure the family is happy."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-44
			"Yes like that. He has to give you advices or protection, everything. Yeah."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-97
			"Like, he would tell you that if there is someone who does you wrong or a boy who touches you, tell me. I will deal with him."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line-98
		Provision of stability	"...who makes sure that his family does not face challenges inside and outside the home." –P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -17
			"Maybe like, you see, he could help me, maybe we could talk to each other and check how the family is doing, and how things are in life"-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-34
			"And when you are at home you could talk to your child and tell them the problems that both as parents are going through and what makes the situation tense in the house. You can't do that when you are outside because people could spread rumours about you."-P2	IsiZulu interview 1, Line-41
	Provision of resources	Support	"…who supports his family…"-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -17
			"Like supporting the family, to make sure that they are a happy family."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -39

			"When I need something I tell my dad…"	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-20
			"Someone who priorities his family's needs, including his family's wants."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-45
		Providing financially	"Like when he gives you money so that you can feed yourself, you can clothe yourself and basically that you don't go to bed hungry yeah."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-112
			"To make sure that his family is happy always, and to make sure that there is food inside the fridge. If ever like some people maybe at school there's a trip and you want to go, maybe if there is no money at home, but then sometimes he can try at least gore make sure that his child also goes for the trip."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -18
			"...He should leave some of the money so that we can buy groceries in the house."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -39
			"Like, if they stay together, if the child maybe is in short of something then he can be able to provide for the child; and if maybe they do not stay together then he could give the child an allowance every month." -P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-33
			"Like he is the one who is supposed to contribute money for what needs to be bought in the house like food and clothes, yeah."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-42

			"And what else....., financially, I would depend on him. Whenever I don't have money, "Meneer, I need money", yes. Because whenever I need something I'll be like 'Eish the data is depleted" and he will be like okay, switch off your data and I will transfer you airtime, yes."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-69
			"Financially, like he bought everything that I wanted. Like I was soo spoilt when he was still alive, he spoiled me soo much."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line-128
			"I think like it's a duty, like it's a must that a father should do those things"-P1	Sepedi individual interview 2, Line -7
		Expected duty	"… Like he has to support right, so if he does all those things so he is a father, yeah."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line -48
			"As long as he supports you its fine."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line -110
Absenteeism of Father	Breakdown in maintenance and management of the family system	Lack of parental control	"Yeah. I play till late though. Yes from 7 or 6 till 8."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line -4-5
			"Yes, if he is away, decision making and stuff. I can decide for myself, okay this weekend I'm going out with my friends. I don't need to ask my dad. My mum, ...aaa I kiss her, I make her coffee and everything is okay and then I go out."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line -71

			"I once had a friend right, and she lived with her mother and her sisters. She doesn't have a father you see, so her mother is old. She is like weak to give orders around the home so this girl always does anything she wants. So she dated one of those skothanes and she got pregnant."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line -90
			" …so I think it's important to have a father because people do as they please because they have absent fathers. Yeah, so they can do anything they want because their father's are absent. Yeah so it's important to have a father so that you can make good decisions and to have a bright future." -P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line -136
			"Mmmm.....I think if there were more fathers, high rate of crime would decrease because as for women prison, they are overcrowded same applies to men prison."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line -134
			"For me, if a father is absent it will affect me badly because my mum she doesn't know how to take decisions you see."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line-72
		Risk	"So she dated one of those skothanes and she got pregnant. Yeah, so I think if her dad was present he would be able to guide her to say don't do that, do this."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-90

			"Maybe those fathers would reduce the rate of poverty, or girls being raped or like criminals being more and more and more or gangsters. Like most boys who do Nyaope [drug], like as my friend."-P1 "And some seek for protection and stuff and some end up dating guys who are not decent, those guys who smoke and do all those stuff because they need the protection."P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-132 Focus group discussion interview, Line-78
		Extended Family Assistance	"I lived in Limpopo. I came here when I was doing Grade 3."-P1 "Aaa... the family supports"-P1 "My mum's brother is in Cape Town and my cousin sister she stays in ***** [inaudible] she also sends money. Then her other sister who is in Kenya she also got married there, she also sends money and some stuff. Then her other sister, she is in Platenburg Bay, she also sends money."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -12 Focus group discussion interview, Line -13 Focus group discussion interview, Line -14
THEME 3: FAMILY FUNCTIONING				
Sub-theme	**Categories**	**Code**	**Extracts from transcripts that represent identifying codes**	**Document extract is located**
Family Patterns	Role Allocation	Role sharing	"Then when I return from school I find my brother here and then ask him some questions."-P1 "He helped take care of my younger sister when my mother was working night shift."P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -5 Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -28

		Role substitution	"I feel like even though my father is not here at the moment but then okay I do things he does. But then if he is here... [sighs].....I feel so small."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-67
			"She can also take us out, like yesterday we went to visit some family."P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -37
			"My mother is a father and mother. I don't want to notice like bad things. My mother plays a good role of being a father"-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-3
			"Because the things he does,....haii....like he can't make good decisions, so grandma has to do everything in the house."-P2	Focus group discussion interview, Line-35
		Leadership	"When a father is at home he could be a leader just as it is said that he should be leading the family."-P2	IsiZulu interview 1, Line-42
			"A father could make sure that everything in the house is going well, like he could fix or replace a broken chair. So, he is a leader in the house."-P2	IsiZulu individual interview 1, Line-43
			"Uhhmm....yeah, the head of the house."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line-461
			"But a father's guidance has to be there in the house."-P	Focus group discussion interview, Line-101
		Nurturing nature	"...she is very protective of her children. She is a straight forward person and does not entertain nonsense."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -42

			"…let me say she is the one who is able to convince my father to do things, including me. She could even decide, [*****] you are wearing a blazer today, it's cold. When I go outside, it's hot but then I have no choice."-P3	Focus group discussion interview, Line-27
			"Even the love is different. Being loved by your father is not the same as being loved by your mother."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line-125
	Role accountability	Breadwinner	"Mama is the breadwinner"-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -14
			"She always makes sure there is food on the table..."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -37
			"My mother is like a breadwinner to all the family."-P2	IsiZulu interview 1, Line-10
			"And most houses don't have fathers that's why they seek out blessers and blesses."-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line -85
			"My mother is always busy at work. She goes to work at 4 a.m and comes back at 5 p.m and cooks, and by that time she will be tired and then goes to sleep."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -4
			"Ja. When my mother worked night shift..."-P1	Sepedi individual interview 1, Line -29
			"Mmm... she was at work. Comes, eats, sleeps then goes back to work again"-P1	Focus group discussion interview, Line-37

4.2.3 Summary of Themes and sub-themes

In this section I summarise key points that could be observed in Table 4.2. The three themes obtained from the thematic analysis are related to the dimension of the MacMaster Model for role functioning as different aspects of the duties of an involved father. Figure 4.1 (below) depicts these aspects as the impact a father's presence or absence has on the child (Theme 1); father contributions towards the family (Theme 2); and how families function (Theme 3) in Tembisa (see conceptual framework in Chapter 2 Figure 2.1).

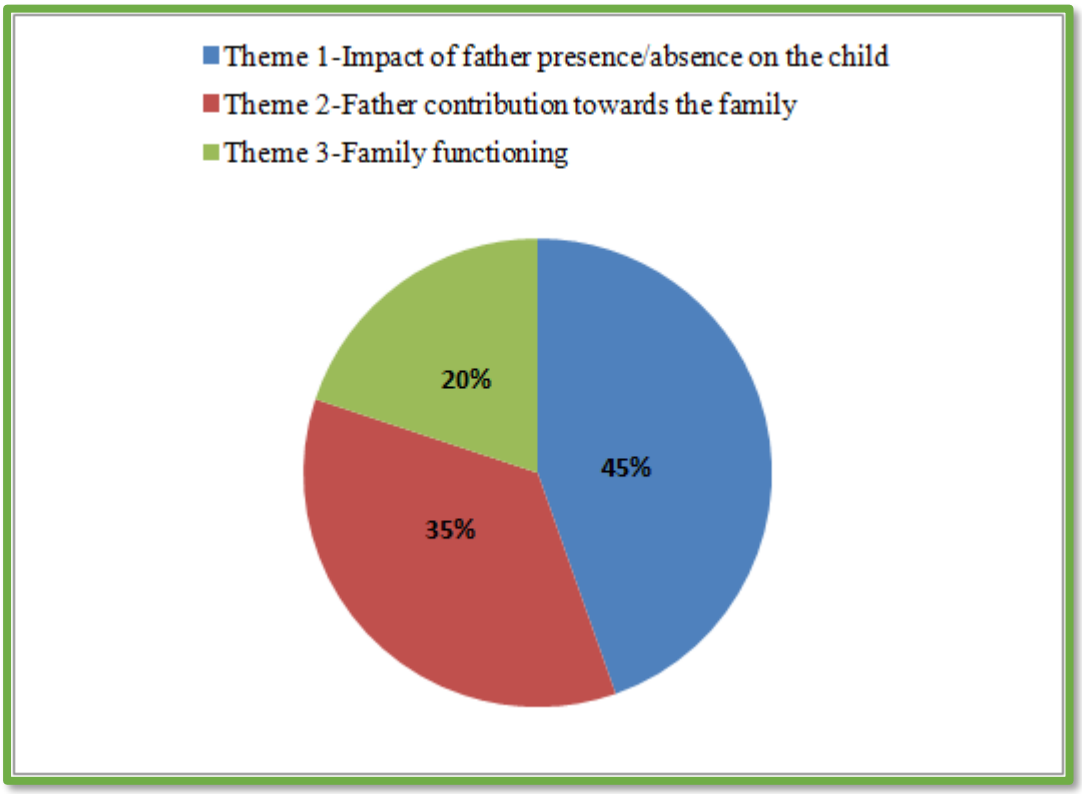


Figure 4.1: Distribution of themes

The number of responses to themes depicted in the graphs below were obtained from the instances in Table 4.1 (above) and percentages calculated accordingly. Figure 4.2 (below) presents the Sub-themes that comprised theme 1 (Impact of father presence/absence on the child). Sub-theme 1.1 (Present father) seemed to contribute more to Theme 1 than Sub-theme 1.2 (Absent father). Father presence seems to have had a significant impact on the child with regards to father involvement.

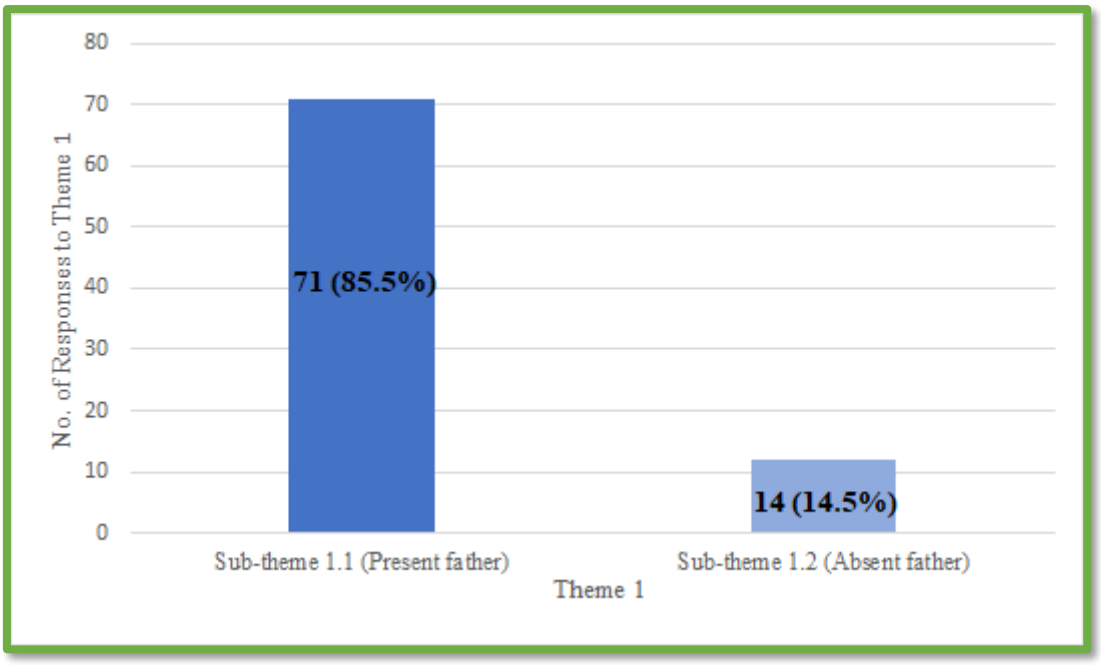


Figure 4.2: Theme 1- Impact of father presence/absence on the child

There follow the Sub-themes that constitute Theme 2 - Father contribution towards the family in Figure 4.3 (below). The distribution of Sub-themes was also determined by the information in Table 4.1. Sub-theme 2.1 (Physically present father) was more prominent in Theme 2 than Sub-theme 2.2 (Absenteeism of father).

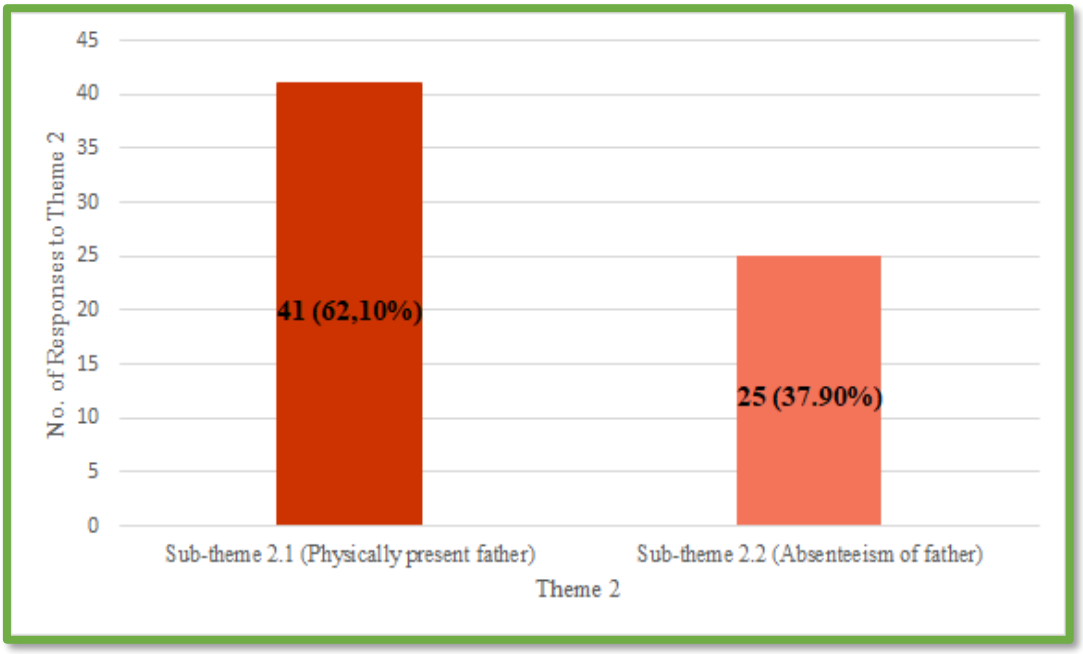


Figure 4.3: Theme 2-Contributions to the family

There follow the percentages of Sub-themes that form Theme 3 - Family Functioning. Sub-theme 3.1 (Role allocation) seemed to prevail in Theme 3 whilst Sub-theme 3.2 (Role accountability) also formed part of Theme 3 at a lesser extent. One could interpret from this graph that most fathers in Tembisa had set roles they played in homes; however, they might not fulfil their roles and therefore these should be filled by others.

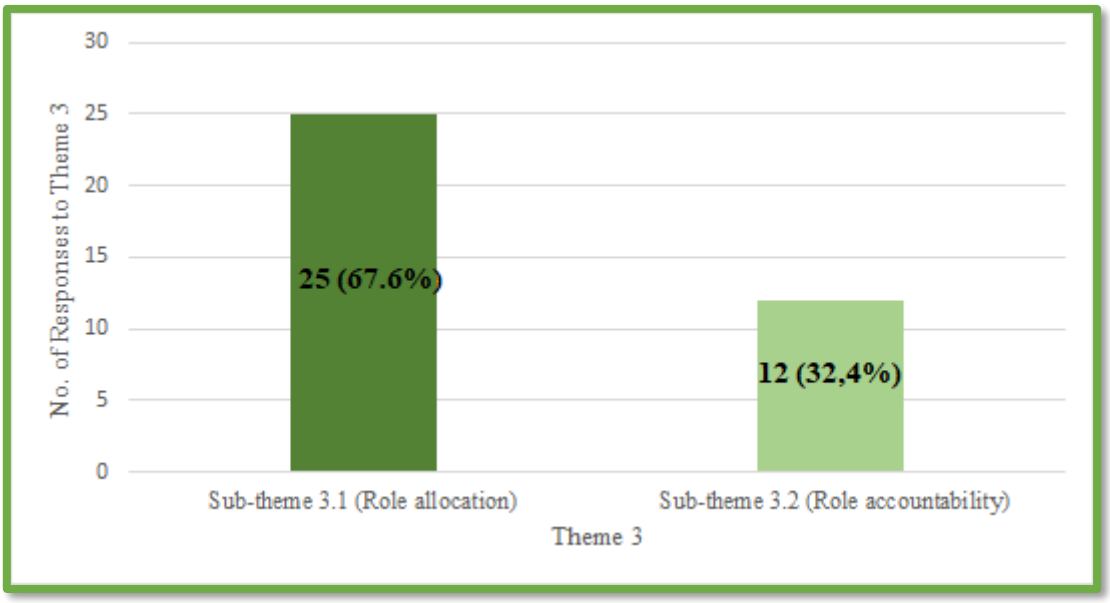


Figure 4.4: Theme 3 - Family functioning

4.3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

In this section I report on the Sub-themes and categories from the results, incorporating extracts from the interview transcripts. In support of my accounts in the discussion I draw on literature to corroborate the research results with existing knowledge. Finally, I situate the Sub-themes and categories within the current study's conceptual framework.

4.3.1 Theme 1: Impact of Father Presence/Absence on the Child

In this theme I looked at how participants conceptualized father involvement pertaining to the child and the contribution the former brought to the phenomenon when actively present, as well as what might have been lacking when absent. Father involvement still plays a pivotal role in a child's social, emotional and cognitive development (Rostad, Medina & Hurtig-Crosby, 2014). The different types of father involvement looked at by participants having been based on three components (see Section 2.2.3, Chapter 2, p. 18), originally coined by Lamb, Pleck, Charnov and Levine (1985), namely engagement, accessibility and responsibility. The

participants focused on a father's accessibility and engagement, that is, the fathers contact and interaction with them in the form of caretaking, play, leisure, talking and quality time (see Figure 4.1 above). They stressed the point of the father's presence and availability, then the father meeting their needs by means of providing financially, planning and organising their lives, protecting, guiding and supporting them (Tamis-Le Monda & Cabrera, 1999).

4.3.1.1 Sub-Theme: Present Father

According to participants, involvement of a present father differs from that of an absent one (see Section 2.2.1, Chapter 2, p. 15), however, recent studies indicate that effective father involvement can still exist with non-resident children if there is commitment and dedication to parenting plans, child maintenance and visitations (Guarin & Meyer, 2018; Koppen et al., 2018). This is solely dependent on the father's willingness and value of his relationship with the child (see Section 2.2.3, Chapter 2, p. 18) and the participants viewed most absent fathers in Tembisa as not committed to any means present of helping them become involved. During probing in the interviews, it became evident that participants believed a father was more involved when present in the home and acknowledged his paternal responsibility to his child, as he was able to monitor its welfare as well as that of the family. The participants seemed to associate emotional support and the parent-child bond more with a present father than they did with a non-resident father, and a less patriarchal and more nurturing father was the differentiating factor that for them determined a father's involvement.

Another contributory factor to the difference in perspective of participants might have been the current position of South African fathers pertaining to unemployment. They have traditionally and still are portrayed as less involved with their children, based on literature, because of high unemployment rates and the migrant labour system (Kamau & Davies, 2018). However, another perception suggests that they are increasingly becoming involved in their children's childcare, albeit at a slow pace (Sikweyiya et al., 2017).

Contrary to what the participants believed, both resident and non-resident fathers are considered to be actively involved in their children's lives (see Section 2.2.3, Chapter 2, p. 18) (Adamsons, 2018). Studies were often complacent in accepting the perception that fathers were absent because of the effects of apartheid, which ultimately excused them from not taking care of their fatherly responsibilities (Okeke, 2018). Contemporary literature reveals that although non-resident fathers have traditionally been considered as not involved in their children's

upbringing, non-resident fathers in high profile jobs are more likely to maintain seeing and being involved (Cano & Baxter, 2019; Guarin & Meyer, 2018; Koppen et al., 2019), attributable to the notion that employment often determines whether a father stays in contact with his child because money, time and energy are required for him to be involved (Guarin & Meyer, 2018).

Guarin and Meyer (2018) add that non-resident fathers with high economic status or moderate earnings maintain contact with their child because they can afford constantly to visit it and provide economic resources. Unlike unemployed fathers, these often have a good standing with the mother, even though they might have separated, because they continue to support the child financially and therefore the mother allows them access (Goldberg, 2015). In contrast, unemployed fathers and low-earning ones are often denied involvement in their non-resident children's lives because they have fewer resources, therefore causing strain on their relationship with the mother (Coates & Phares, 2019; Guarin & Meyer, 2018; Trappe, 2019).

Adamsons (2018) acknowledges that high-profile fathers may not gain access to their non-resident children and are therefore portrayed as uninvolved, but he argues that contact or time spent alone does not benefit the child and that conditions in which time is spent with the child contributes to positive father involvement. Non-resident fathers therefore may still be regarded as actively involved in their child's life based on the quality and activities they engage in and not necessarily the duration of the visit.

The literature review revealed a number of determinants for father involvement and acknowledged that factors often influencing men's involvement contribute to economic and cultural differences, variations in attitudes, values and social norms (see Section 2.2.3, Chapter 2, p. 19-21) (Ellerbe, Jones & Carlson, 2018). These explain why fathers wish to be present and involved in their child's life, ultimately affecting how they relate to it (Ellerbe, Jones & Carlson, 2018). Some fathers feel that having a child gives them a sense of purpose and respectability in their community, helping them to be recognised as masculine man (Gibbs et al., 2017; Sikweyiya et al., 2017). For example, Sikweyiya et al. (2017) write that a man who takes care of his child is seen as a "real man," which in black communities' means being responsible, trustworthy and approachable, but strict towards child and rest of the family (Okeke, 2018). Some fathers are said to perceive that caring for their child equates to securing one's future as they foresee that there will in turn be someone to look after them, and enables

a man to continue his lineage and perpetuate the family name (Nduna, 2006; Sikweyiya et al., 2017).

Fathers who grew up experiencing their own fathers being involved in their upbringing value their own involvement in their children's lives and see its importance as a natural occurrence. Those who have had adverse experiences with their fathers are likely to avoid recreating similar experiences for their own children and be involved fathers (Makusha et al., 2013). According to Farradina, Psikologi and Rian (2017), fathers with more resources and opportunities show higher levels of involvement than those who are unemployed or underemployed, have limited skills and job prospects, or have limited education. This confirms the view of Hunter (2006) that when time and money are not a matter of concern the contemporary father would be more caring, demonstrating his love and engaging domestically.

In the following sections I extrapolate on what constitutes an involved present father, according to the study's findings.

4.3.1.1.1 Category: Life Skill development

As stated above, a father's involvement is essential to a child's development, and education is considered an important aspect of human development (Bryan, 2013), with the potential to benefit an individual in earning an income, establishing an effective social profile and improving economic status (Allen & Daly, 2007; Cano & Baxter, 2019; Lloyd & Blanc, 1996). Therefore, parents, and in the case of this study, fathers who are considered to be involved in their children's future, make it a priority for their children to be educated and have a prospective future.

Research has found that if a father has completed higher education he instils the value of education in his child, who in turn views it as valuable and stands a greater chance of completing it (OECD, 2009; Pomerantz, Moorman & Litwack, 2007). Comments from participants demonstrate some of the ways in which fathers invest in their children's education and eventually influence their career aspirations, for instance: *"Uhhmmm... let me say.....based on my career, he wanted me to be a lawyer then it was inside me, then I had to accept it but then it was inside me being a lawyer."* (P3:FocusGDI), and: *"Yes, my stepfather had an influence cause he would want to know what happens at school anytime I come back home."* (P1:FocusGDI). The previous extract also illustrates practices in which a father has to show interest for his child's education, others involving attending school meetings, course selection

and assisting with school-related tasks (Pomerantz, Moorman & Litwack, 2007), and, as one of the participants pointed out, *"Yes, he also helps me with schoolwork."* (P1:IndIntSep-1).

According to previous and present literature on fathering, those with higher education, such as a university degree, take on the role of covering the financial costs of the child's schooling and educational excursions as they consider it an important and highly valued role to which to be appointed (Flouri, 2006; Koppen et al., 2018; Lloyd & Blanc, 1996; Mitchell, Booth, King & Teachman, 2009;). An educated father values a close relationship with the child and so values quality time spent on educational activities that expose it to more knowledge input, such as visiting a museum and providing access to resources at home (Cano & Baxter, 2019; Flouri & Buchaman, 2004; Koppen et al., 2018). Highly educated fathers tend to invest time more on activities that stimulate and build their child's brain and cognitive aptitude (Cano & Baxter, 2019), having high expectations and more resources and opportunities than uneducated fathers. They are reported as showing higher levels of father involvement by means of paying for the child's educational needs and being involved in their schooling career (Ellerbe, Jones & Carlson, 2018).

Black unemployed and uneducated fathers may not always be fully involved in their children's education because they struggle to find employment and experience fewer economic opportunities than counterparts from other races and with higher academic status (Cano & Baxter, 2019; Ellerbe et al., 2018). According to Morrell and Ritcheter (2006), in an African context characterised predominantly by poverty, fatherhood is associated with financial provision and there is no expectation of the father engaging and participating actively with the child or in activities such as the one suggested above. A significant point to note in literature is that if a father is absent his contribution towards his child's education diminishes, because he cannot monitor how the financial contribution is allocated (Carlson, 2006). A participant spoke of a decline in financial contribution towards her schooling: *"Like maybe sometimes he would pay like if you go to university or somewhere, maybe he would help me pay school fees just like with my brother-my brother, he dropped out because he had no money to pay school fees, plus he was too playful."* (P1:IndIntSep-1).

A father's role is also to teach and develop a child's emotional and social development, (see Section 2.3, Chapter 2, p. 20-21). Freeks (2015) adds to the life skill development category by writing that fathers, along with the contribution that education offers, equally equate to

character building as they teach the child ethical and moral values that are important in the social context. Participants felt their fathers were imparting knowledge when:

> *"He could show me how things are and how life is, like saying 'Do this because it's right,' or 'Don't do this because it's wrong'."* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1)

> *"He can also advise to like have good things in life, yeah."* (P1: FocusGDI)

> "*Yeah, he is the one who is going to give you advices not to do bad."* (P2: FocusGDI)

> *"Then their father can advise them on the type of people they should not hang around with so that good things can happen to her. If she hangs around the wrong people, bad things are going to happen to her. That's what I think."* (P1: FocusGDI)

Fathers can advise and be a model to the child about gender-specific mannerisms. Theories of socialization and social learning articulate that a child's attitude and behaviour is learned from and modelled upon behaviours of key people in their life (Makusha, Richter, Knigh, Van Rooyen & Bhan, 2013). According to Golden (2018), a father plays the role of helping his son understand male expression. During the interviews, a male participant said: *"Your dad is a man, he knows how men think, how they feel. He is going to tell you man's emotions and feelings."* (P2: FocusGDI).

Fathers present a model of how men interact with the world and are responsible for shaping the son's social self-presentation (Rodstad, Medinas & Hurtig-Crosby, 2014). This modelling is said to be achieved through being disciplined and maintaining a consistent authoritative model who does not self-destruct (Golden, 2018). According to Golden (2018) and Kaya, Iwamoto, Brady, Clinton and Grivel (2019), a father's physical presence subtly promotes the child's risk-taking behaviour through play, such as wrestling, and physical sports such as rugby and football. Therefore, in the absence of a father, Gibbs et al. (2017) believe that most boy children struggle with knowing wider ideals of masculinity.

Masculinity is socially construed, with numerous forms of identities, consequently boys' experience of the transition from boyhood to manhood differs with socio-economic circumstances that also affect father involvement. Men in socio-economically disadvantaged settings are impacted upon by race, ethnicity, patriarchy and kinship in their understanding of masculinity. In South Africa, hegemonic masculinity prevails in most black, low socio-economic communities, emphasising patriarchal power which is framed by financial provision,

establishing a home, protecting one's family and having children. In black communities it is prominent in endorsing oppression of women, promiscuous behaviour that is socially praised, and sexual aggression (Gibbs et al., 2017; Idenmudia, Maepa & Moamogwe, 2016; Kaya et al., 2019; Makusha et al., 2013; Nduna & Jewkes, 2011; Sikweyiya et al., 2017; Smiler, 2008; Spjeldnaes et al., 2011). A male participant pointed out that his father had made him be aware of these characteristics: *"My child as a man, we are womanisers. Yes"* (P3: FocusGDI), whilst on boy children being made to believe that this kind of behaviour is acceptable he commented: *"Yeah, yeah, I agree, I agree... we are womanisers"* (P3: FocusGDI).

As reported above, one of the responsibilities to have been imposed on fathers is to represent a masculine role model to both their boy and girl child, and a male child who does not have a father involved in his life to guide him and lead by example often feels that he is not sufficiently masculine (Kaya et al., 2019). Such a perception was voiced during the interviews by a male adolescent who had no relationship with his father: *"Like, maybe I would feel the same way as other boys feel"* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1), and: *"Like to teach me how life is like with men, and to groom me to know better – when you are old, when you are becoming a man"* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1). Kaya et al. (2019) write that some boy children are perceived as being more maternal because of this.

A father's role in the boy child's early development is to dissolve the mother-child dyad (Kamau & Davies, 2018), a process explained by the psychoanalytic concept of Freud (1925) which proposes that boys in infancy develop feminine direction as a result of their primitive identification with a mothering adult. According to Diamond (2004) a small boy has to pull away from his mother so that he can differentiate himself from her or else run the risk of being feminized. The presence of an actively involved father is necessary to bring about the maternal disentanglement, as studies in psychology and gender have shown a father socializes a boy child in gender specific ways, whereas mothers tend to do so in gender neutral ways (Sharipo, Thomas & Warschansky, 2014).

Ture (2015) writes that mothers have more egalitarian ideas on gender roles, concluding that mothers mostly do not argue with their child's perception of stereotypical gender roles but rather confirm whatever the child may think. Sometimes mothers use gendered speech and consequently their boy children show more feminine behaviour. Femininity is seen as a set of behaviours including affection, cheerfulness and nurturing, regarded by men as a weakness and counter to masculinity (Makusha et al., 2013). Boys growing up without a father present in the

home often exhibit problems with sex-role and gender identity development (Cabrera & Peters, 2000), whilst Sharipo et al. (2014) highlight that males who fail to uplift masculine norms and portray minor stereotypical feminine tasks and manners are shunned by other males and are perceived as committing transgressions and threatening their masculinity. Hegemonic masculinity dictates and shapes behaviours of African males, configuring which should be dominant and therefore which actions are permissible (Gibbs et al., 2017). It also promotes homophobia, racism and heterosexuality.

One male participant admitted that he spent time with female friends and did not engage with male peers because he felt more comfortable with females: *"Yes, because of, as for me, I respect ladies as much as my father does"* (P3: FocusGDI), and: *"My father can tell me that respect women as I do …"* (P3: FocusGDI). The comments illustrate that besides teaching their sons about masculinity, fathers also need to model what would be considered as being a man in the African context. Father's role models for their children should help them learn how to be responsible and correct behaviours from imitation, practice and instruction (Pomerantz, Moorman & Litwack, 2007).

4.3.1.1.2 Category: Nurturing and Support

The positive impact of a father's nurture and support on the child's wellbeing (see Section 2.3, Chapter 2, p. 22-23) is predicted by Sogkal, Ozdemir and Koruklu (2018) as producing lower levels of emotional and behavioural problems, whilst Roman, Makwakwa and Lacante (2016) write that the more time a son spends with his father and forms a bond, the more he is saved from externalizing problems. A study by Khaleque (2018) found that parental love accounts for 26% of a child's psychological adjustments and parental love in this instance relates to the emotional expressions of intimate feelings by the parent. However, paternal love is regarded as having more far-reaching psychological adjustment effects than maternal love (Khaleque, 2018).

Although each ethnic group and culture has its own way of showing love for its children, they perceive feeling loved as being cared for and appreciated by parents (Khaleque, 2018), as related by a participant: *"Yes, that made me feel so important, valuable"* (P3: FocusGDI). Another spoke of time spent with her father: *"It makes me feel good hey"* (P1: IndIntSep-2), another: *"Feeling loved, protected, yeah...it feels good"* (P3: FocusGDI). According to Sikweyiya et al. (2017), a father's presence in the home is protective of the

children and is believed to confer his social values on them. This is significant for South African children because father absence and lack of his involvement is prevalent, leaving co-residing fathers to be perceived as a privilege. The more time spent with a child the stronger the relationship (Idenmudia, Maepa & Moamogwe, 2016), therefore producing securely attached individuals.

Wilson and Prior (2011) propose that one way of forming good quality bonds between father and child is by emotionally parenting and availing oneself to the child's needs. Participants said:

> *"When there are problems at home he can help. He will try by all means to help where he can."* (P1: IndIntSep-2)
>
> *"It's someone who takes care of you, who cares for you."* (P2: FocusGDI),
>
> *"Having a shoulder to cry on when he is around."* (P1: FocusGDI)
>
> *"He would want to know if something is wrong, if I need something, he would care so much. Whenever I got sick he would leave whatever he was doing to come to school when I was still in primary."* (P1: FocusGDI).

It's interesting to observe from the above statements that fathers are now more involved in their children's lives and wellbeing than traditionally, especially in black communities, and no longer play only the role of helper to the mother's childcare duties (Sogkal et al., 2018).

A second way of establishing a strong bond between father and child, proposed by Mitchell, Booth, King and Teachman (2009), is to perform activities together, for example:

> *"Sometimes he buys us nice things or take us to places like Gold Reef City"* (P1: IndIntSep-2).
>
> *"Oh yeah, on my birthday. Last of last year my dad took me to Emperor's Palace for the first time. It was a surprise actually..."* (P1: FocusGDI)
>
> *"I loved shopping with him and dancing with him."* (P1: IndIntSep-1)
>
> *"We go out; we go shopping; we play; we cook."* (P1: IndIntSep-1)

Participants said their fathers did make an effort to engage with them confirms the claim in Chapter 2 section 2.2.3 (p. 18) with involved fathers being those who are regarded as engaged fathers (Goldberg, 2015). Even non-residential fathers are regarded as involved if the

condition in which they spend their time with the child involves caregiving, is warm and produces positive emotions for the child (Lamb, 2010; Parke, 2008; Pleck, 2010).

4.3.1.2 Sub-theme: Absent Father

Father absence was classified in the literature review as physical avoidance of paternal obligations to the child, undisclosed paternity and unknown fathers. It is documented that father absence increased from 42% to 48% in 2011 in South Africa, the highest rates of father absence in the world (Fazel, 2017), with only 36% of children living with their father. Father is prominent amongst black African children (HSRC, 2018), consequently, based on what was discussed in the previous category, it is expected that children with absent fathers tend to have behavioural problems (Mitchell, Booth, King and Teachman, 2009). Fathers need to be available and accessible to meet their children's emotional and psychological needs and learn more about their character and how to be sensitive towards them (Wilson & Prior, 2011; Smilter, 2008).

The unemployment rate in South Africa is high, standing at 26.7%, with men in Tembisa often finding work that takes them away from their families, such as mining, construction, agriculture, trade and transport industry (Stats SA, 2018). They also face obstacles of long working shifts, low paying work, and inflexible or odd hours, such that their working conditions reduce their fathering considerately (Farradina et al., 2017). Non-resident fathers are likely to be discouraged from being involved, which can be exacerbated by their partners so they perceive themselves as costly impediments to the family (Palkovitz, Fagan & Hull, 2013). Some mothers allegedly prohibit access to children to minimise the harmful impact on the child and protect them from unsupportive male partners (Gibbs et al., 2017).

Though cognisant of the notion of marriage, citizens are increasingly accepting of out-of-wedlock childbearing, consequently a greater proportion of black South African fathers in lower socio-economic settings contribute to its prevalence (Ellerbe et al., 2018). The diminishing value of marital childbearing is accelerated by knowledge that, in African communities, childbearing and support is viewed as a community and extended kin responsibility, for example, grandparents, aunts and uncles. When a father is absent from a child's life the next important male in the child's life is the uncle or older brother. Absent fathers know that uncles serve the paternal role, hence referred to as *"ubaba omncane"* (father's younger brother) and *"ubaba omkhulu"* (older brother) (Makusha & Richter, 2014).

Some men have a child to ascertain their masculinity by providing evidence that they are "heterosexually successful," without any intention of being actively involved in the child's life and sometimes denying paternity by suggesting that the mother cannot control her fertility. They thus remove their paternal responsibility from the pregnancy and child support and care (Gibbs et al., 2017). According to Makusha et al. (2013), men who experience only a little paternal involvement usually have negative attitudes towards fatherhood.

Morrell and Ritchter (2006) highlight the patriarchal affect of African fathers often portraying themselves as dominant and uncaring, even when physically present in the home. Giving too much emotional care and not providing financially is frowned upon in black communities, where hegemonic masculinity prevails (Sikweyiya et al, 2017). Therefore, sometimes men are reported as viewing active father involvement as a counter to masculinity that manifests as lack of emotional availability, male control and limited participation in domestic family work (Gibbs et al., 2017). The emotionally absent factor about fathering practices was regarded as unloving and uninvolved fathers by participants with absent fathers.

Lastly, a father my stay away from his paternal responsibilities because the mother has re-partnered (Guarin & Meyer, 2018). Koppen et al. (2018) write that if the father or mother finds a new romantic partner it lessens the chances of the father being effectively involved, as the new relationship demands investment of time, thus interfering with bonding to the child. Fathers who have children across a number of relationships are also reported as failing to be actively involved in their children's lives as financially they cannot maintain all the children and the mothers also deny them access (Matlakala et al., 2018). According to Okeke (2018), men may keep multiple concurrent partners with whom they have no desire to remain committed, and therefore feel no obligation to their children.

4.3.1.2.1 Category: Lack of nurturing and support

There is a notion that a father's location and support for his child predicts the quality of their relationship (Madhavan, Townsend & Garey, 2008). Ingredients to foster a good strong bond require the father to support the child financially and emotionally, and make themselves accessible and physically available (Freeks, 2015). Participants talked about how they had neither seen their fathers nor had a relationship with them: *"Okay, I never got a chance to live, talk and spend quality time with my dad."* (P1: IndIntSep-1). Another said: *"I knew him but I was very young. So for ten years I have lived without my father."* (P2: FocusGDI). A male

participant who did not have a relationship with his father said: *"Ever since I was here I don't have a picture of my dad."* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1). Another said: *"Even when I was growing up ... I only knew last year that I have a father. When I was growing up I did not mind that I didn't have a father."* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1).

Studies investigating parent-child co-residence in Southern Africa show that children are more likely to live with their mother than with their father (Palkovitz et al., 2013), an occurrence prominent in the township of Tembisa with its many female-headed households. Some children live with their extended family members (Stats SA, 2018) due to the high rates of absent fathers in the community (Mkhize, 2006), as fatherhood is impacted by the legacy of apartheid, including high rates of non-marital childbearing and multi-partner fertility that are common on a greater scale in South Africa (Makusha et al., 2013). With unemployment standing at 26.7% (Stats SA, 2018), black men struggle to find employment and experience fewer economic opportunities than counterparts from other races, some being pressured to move to do so. Their experience of the job market as particularly hostile is exacerbated by low levels of education, lack of access to opportunities, a greater likelihood of incarceration and racial discrimination and prejudice (Ellerbe et al., 2018). This current situation in South Africa is a major contributory factor to high percentages of absent fathers or fathers who do not live with their children (Madhavan et al., 2008).

With the informal sector accounting for 17.4% of total employment in South Africa, men in Tembisa mostly work in agriculture, mining, construction and trade and transport, which often require them to travel for work (Stats SA, 2018). An example of an adolescent who has no bond with her non-resident father because of employment said: *"Uhh,.. like he changed jobs, I didn't know him."* (P2: FocusGDI). Southern Africa is tainted by employment instability which leaves many men struggling to fulfil their customary responsibilities of marrying the mother or paying for the damages (Madhavan et al., 2008). Some fathers simply deny their obligations to their children and show no responsibilities towards fathering them (Richter & Morrell, 2006). A participant narrated how his father avoided taking up his paternal responsibilities: "I *don't remember. Ever since I was young I didn't meet my dad. ... I grew up without a father so I'm used to it." (P*2: IndInt IsiZulu-1)

Due to the absence of a father the felt abandoned, unwanted, and unaccepted by the father, having a negative impact on development of self-esteem and self-concept (Allen & Daly, 2007). As a result, the child, as indicated in the previous category, developed behavioural

problems, internalized by daughters and externalized by sons (Mitchell et al., 2009). A female participant said; *"I keep my feelings inside me."* (P1: IndIntSep-1), which put her at a greater risk of struggling with peer relations because they were anxious, withdrawn, or played an aggressive, less tolerant and non-understanding role in interactions (Allen & Daly, 2007; Lloyd & Blanc, 1996; Rodstad, Medinas & Hurtig-Crosby, 2014; Smilter, 2008), as observed in a comment by the same female participant: *"Aaah…I don't talk to anyone, I just keep it to myself."* (P1: IndIntSep-2).

One participant who displayed aggression in the focus group interview said: *"I hate being disturbed … If I don't want to talk, if I don't talk to you, don't talk to me."* (P1: FocusGDI). Children also tend not to have good relationships with their uninvolved fathers, as evident from a statement made by one of the participants; "*I don't think when my father would come here. I don't have any connection and I feel nothing."* He added: *"As for my father, he is not someone that I could publicly say he's close to my heart"* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1). Literature documents that non-resident father-child relationships become more fragile over time, particularly if the father was briefly present or had not lived with the child at any point in his life (Palkovitz et al., 2013; Makusha & Richter, 2014). When the participant was asked how he interacted with his father through text he responded: *"Like, hi, hello, that's all."* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1). Palkovitz et al. (2013) further explain that some non-resident fathers are not involved in their children's lives and do not even make an effort to establish any contact.

4.3.2 Theme 2: Father Contribution Towards Family

A father's contribution towards his child's upbringing and maintenance plays a pivotal role in the healthy functionality of the family structure (Hewlett, 2000; Walsh, 2003). According to Mkhize (2006), historically, black African men were considered as being "*monna tota*", "*indoda eqotho,*" translated as "*a real man,*" if they were able to provide economically and assume the role of family leader The legal system also positions a man's role as a father to provide for his family with the necessities of life (Coe, 2011).

4.3.2.1 Sub-theme: Physically present father

Physically present fathers are described in the literature as being responsible for their children (Lamb, 1987; Wilson & Prior, 2011), an aspect of a father that is considered one of the most important. In this sub-theme I delve further into what constitutes being a responsible father when a man supports and maintains his family.

4.3.2.1.1 Category: Maintenance and Management of family system

Maintenance and management in the McMaster Family Functioning Model looks at how the father upholds the standards of the family by looking out for both the instrumental and affective needs of his family (Epstein et al., 2007; Walsh, 2003). A father who is considered as maintaining the family system is often responsible for issues such as decision-making, establishing personal and familial boundaries, and managing financial concerns and health issues (Weiler, 2000). In essence, the father ensures the stability of his family so that they are firmly connected and not easily shaken by life challenges or attacks.

Participants seemed to touch on the provision of stability when explaining what constituted an involved father: "*Maybe like, you see, he could help me, maybe we could talk to each other and check how the family is doing, and how things are in life"* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1). Another participant spoke about a father's role in facilitating stability in the family functioning and structure (Epstein et al., 2007): "*...who makes sure that his family does not face challenges inside and outside the home."* (P1: IndIntSep-1).

As participants elaborated on the roles of an involved father, they all mentioned how he was responsible for taking care of his family, which included protecting them. According to Leininger (2015, p, 119), a protective father finds specific ways to help individuals and the family to maintain wellbeing and health and to prevent destructive acts that could threaten their life, health, or survival, either directly or indirectly. The statements made by participants all concurred with Leininger's description.

The first aspect on which participants focused with regards to providing protection was that with a father present in the home *"... I feel more safe..."* (P2: FocusGDI). According to Stenson (2004), a father's presence in the home makes his family feel safe due to his physically strong body, and men are naturally built to have instincts, attitudes and physical strength that make them tough-minded and sacrificial service to people who matter most to them. A participant described an involved father as *"a man who is supposed to be the shield of the family. A man who is going to sacrifice anything just to make sure the family is happy."* (P3: FocusGDI). As a result, a father is perceived as able to physically shield his child and family from potential aggressors, reassure and alleviate daily anxiety (Letiecq, Koblinsky & Harriman, 2003).

Another way that an African father protects his child from harm is by using authoritarian parenting (see Section 4.3.2.2.1, Chapter 4, p. 106), to restrict their child's exposure to harsh environments (Letiecq et al., 2003). An involved father will be attentive to the whereabouts of their child at all times and a study conducted by Letiecq et al. (2003) revealed the strategies that African fathers engage in when protecting their children. The strategies involve monitoring and teaching personal safety by confining movement and supervising the child closely on the streets which replicated what a participant also experienced when she narrates that "*You see those people nowadays they go out, like next week they go to some outings, those kids, and then they don't want me to go; he tells me that it is dangerous late at night ....*" (P1: IndIntSep-1)

The female participant may have been prohibited from joining her peers on the late-night outing because girl children are often perceived as less precocious and weaker than boy children, so fathers feel the need to protect them (Sharipo et al., 2014). Perhaps family men have a natural instinct to protect the females in their lives, including wife, daughter, mother and sister from potential aggressors or danger, an innate instinct and duty that leads them to assess any young males who approach them to avoid current threat or future harm (Stenson, 2004). One of the female participants recalls her father advising her that: "*Like, he would tell you that if there is someone who does you wrong or a boy who touches you, tell me. I will deal with him.*" (P1: FocusGDI).

Findings from this study showed that a father's protection extends from physical protection to include other aspects. The participants indicated that a father's protection involves strengthening the child's competence as well as financial provision in the home (Slattery, 2013). A female participant said: *"If there's something missing or lacking he will go and provide that thing, not go outside and tell everyone what is happening in the house."* (P1: IndIntSep-1). This suggests a father provides for his family as a way of protecting them.

With reference to the above extract, Stenson (2004) reports that a father protects his family from poverty by ensuring shelter, food and clothing, thus shielding them from harsh external circumstances so that they feel secure (2004). A father also mediates between the family and the world by means of showing the child that it is possible to engage actively and assertively with the world in a non-destructive or imposing manner (Morrell, 2006). Similarly, Letiecq et al. (2003) state that young men who grow up where there is active father protective care become adults with limited conflicts and destructive acts. A participant said: *"I think a*

father is someone who protects his family and guides boys when they come into a certain stage where they would be men, and give them more information about life." (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1).

Supporting the mother is another important role that one of the participants highlighted. Kinsinger, Laurenceau, Carver and Antoni (2011) argue that the kinds of partner support that a father can give a mother are i) *emotional*, for instance, expressing empathy, providing comfort and attentively listening; ii) *instrumental*, for example, household chores, managing bills and transportation; and iii) *informational*, notably providing advice, guidance and feedback on a problem. The third type of support was similar to what her late father used to provide her mother: *"So when he is not there, mum makes like terrible decisions"* (P1: FocusGDI). The extent to which a mother's effective functioning has been affected has a direct influence on the child's wellbeing, therefore it is essential to receive that support and guidance from their partner for the betterment of the child (Kinsinger et al., 2011). Ultimately, the father's involvement and presence in the home reinforces the mother's parenting (Carlson, 2006).

4.3.2.1.2 Category: Provision of resources

A body of literature reports on how parenting is most concerned with giving the child time and providing money (Epstein et al., 2007; Koppen et al., 2018). Money enables a parent to address the basic tasks and promote the developmental ones (Carlson, 2006; Epstein et al., 2007; Madhavan et al., 2008; Walsh, 2003). When a father actively takes up his role he makes sure that basic tasks are taken care of in the home, particularly food and shelter (Walsh, 2003), however, his money also affords the child schooling and opportunities that foster cognitive and social development (Thomson, Hanson & McLauaham, 1994).

A father's primary role in African communities is that of the provider, and as stated above this is where his value is considered to reside (Dyer, Roby, Mupedziswa & Day, 2011; Kohn, 2015). Financial support is viewed as a strong predictor of commitment in African men, as seen in cultural expectations such as *lobola (bride price)* for marriage and courtship, consequently a child may judge the father's involvement based on his financial support, which reflects the traditional cultural expectations of men.

A study conducted by Dyer et al. (2011) showed that adolescents perceived financial support as higher acts of father involvement than father co-residence. Coe (2011) gives an explanation for this view in that children tend to perceive love and commitment when receiving help from people they love in the form of financial and material means that provide for

necessities such as clothing, food and education. The participants also felt that a description of an involved father was of a man who takes care of his family by financially supporting them:

> *"A father is a man who feeds his family… If there's something missing or lacking, he will go and provide that thing..."* (P1: IndIntSep-1)

> *"He should leave some of the money so that we can buy groceries in the house."* (P1: IndIntSep-1)

> *"Like, if they stay together, if the child maybe is in short of something then he can be able to provide for the child; and if maybe they do not stay together then he could give the child an allowance every month."* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1).

> *"Like when he gives you money so that you can feed yourself, you can clothe yourself and basically that you don't go to bed hungry yeah."* (P2: FocusGDI)

> *"Like he is the one who is supposed to contribute money for what needs to be bought in the house like food and clothes, yeah."* (P2: FocusGDI)

As evident from these statements, South African fathers are seen as a major source of support for their child. However, it is common for non-resident fathers to be perceived as not involved, because living apart from the child raises transactional costs and makes it difficult for them to spend time together with their child or monitor allocation of their financial contributions (Carlson, 2006). Hence, their contribution to the child maintenance diminishes.

Laws in South Africa, such as the Child Act, force men to meet their financial obligations to their children as well as build a relationship with them (Richter & Morrell, 2006). A non-custodial father should pay maintenance until the child becomes self-supporting (Gallinetti, 2006), however, although most adolescents in South Africa are aware of this child maintenance law, they do not receive the constant and rigorous child maintenance from their fathers. Most participants indicated that their father's, according to their knowledge, had not been taken to court by their mothers for avoiding child maintenance, however they knew what a father should be doing so as a means of support: *"Like supporting the family, to make sure that they are a happy family"* (P1: IndIntSep-1), for another participant, because: *"When I need something I tell my dad because there's nothing I can do, he is my father."* (P2: IndInt IsiZulu-1). Another participant strongly believed of a father: *"Like he has to support right, so if he does*

all those things so he is a father, yeah." (P1: FocusGDI) and that a father is fulfilling his paternal duties: *"As long as he supports you it's fine."* (P2: FocusGDI).

Bronte-Tinkew, Bowie & Moore (2007) found that fathers might not honour their responsibilities to their children because sometimes mothers who receive welfare assistance from the government want him to help out with child support of his own accord rather than handing the matter over to the Family Court. Mothers for some time have been accepting a father in kind rather than upholding his paternal requirement, contribution and sharing on childcare along with other living expenses as his demonstration of genuine father involvement.

Palkovitz et al. (2013) found that co-parenting in countries other than South Africa has grown as a construct in the context of father involvement that takes over from just financial provision for the child. This is because there is a breakdown of the traditional stable nuclear family structure, hence a preponderance of cohabitation, multi-partner fertility, step families and fluid family structures. In families in which parents effectively co-parent, parents support each other to accomplish parenting goals through a division of labour in relation to childcare and childbearing (Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2007). The partners collaboratively buy clothing for the child and coordinate plans for caring while the partner works and take actions to care for the healthcare. Co-parenting, together with constant financial support robustly predicts non-resident father involvement with the child over time (Palkovitz et al. 2013). However, South African fathers, as reported above, perceive father involvement as a counter to their masculinity and would rather focus on financial support to ascertain manhood (Gibbs et al., 2017).

4.3.2.2 Sub-theme: Absenteeism of Father

Another aspect that Lamb (1987) noted regarding father involvement is accessibility (see Section 2.2.3, Chapter 2, p. 18), as a father must not be absent during the child's upbringing, that is not fail to co-reside with the child, have contact or a mutual relationship (Flouri & Buchaman, 2004). According to Freeks (2015), if the father does not co-reside with his child he still has the responsibility to maintain personal contact on a regular basis, because most African children are more likely to live with their mothers while their fathers live elsewhere (Lloyd & Blanc, 1996; Mkhize, 2006), leaving the father unable to regulate the child's residence or behaviour. In the next Sub-theme I discuss how the family unit can break down in the absence of a father.

4.3.2.2.1 Category: Breakdown in maintenance and management of family system

Keshavarz and Baharundin (2013) found that fathers from collectivist countries such as China used an authoritarian parenting style on their children, similar to that used by African fathers, as they consider children's obedience a sign of respect to the adult, characteristic of most fathers in collectivist cultures. African fathers are recognised as showing care and concern when they enforce parenting powers that are autocratic, strict and firm, because historically and culturally men have been portraying gender ideologies that prevented them from being warm and open (Roman, Makwakwa & Lacante, 2016). Showing affection to children such as hugging and kissing was not allowed but looked upon as weakness (Makusha et al., 2013). A participant expressed how strict his father was: *"And to have limits, because if my father says no it means no, there's nothing that's gonna change…"* (P3: FocusGDI). Another participant talked about how her brother disciplined her if she misbehaved because brothers and uncles in African families take the role of the father figure if he is absent from the home (Mkhize, 2006). She respected her brother because if not: "*He will beat me … Ja. I give him that respect, yoh.... Or else he is going to beat me, he doesn't like to be disrespected."* (P1: IndIntSep-1).

In cases of the father being non-resident, such as above, the child still needs close supervision by means of frequent home visits and telephonic contact (Keshavarz & Baharundin, 2013), however, in the South African context most uninvolved fathers express little or no concern for their children, ignoring or being unaware of their behaviour and not setting clear limits on what they can and cannot do (Freeks, 2015; Keshavarz & Baharundin, 2013; Mkhize, 2006). The participants told how they were not restricted in terms of what they wanted to do because their fathers were absent:

> *"Yeah. I play till late though.....Yes from seven or six till eight."* (P1: FocusGDI)

> *"Yes, if he is away, decision-making and stuff. I can decide for myself, okay this weekend I'm going out with my friends. I don't need to ask my dad."* (P3: FocusGDI).

> *"... so they can do anything they want because their father's are absent."* (P1: FocusGDI)

Not having a parent in the home who applies authoritarian parenting style often leads to adolescents with extreme external locus of control orientations, according to the participants, which confirms the findings from Keshavarz and Baharundin (2013) that it was associated with higher internal and lower external locus of control. The reason may be that, although

authoritarian parenting style enforces strict obedience and is autocratic, it involves consistency in discipline, attentiveness and reinforcement of positive behaviours (McClun & Merell, 1998). Adolescents with an external locus of control orientation, who have the belief that events and consequences are controlled by external forces, need to be constantly monitored and guided towards appropriate standards of behaviour because they tend to portray maladaptive socio-economical behaviours which are often observed in those with uninvolved fathers. The participants narrated their experiences of adolescents who did not have a father to govern and monitor their behaviour in the home: *"I once had a friend right, and she lived with her mother and her sisters. She doesn't have a father you see, so her mother is old. She is like weak to give orders around the home so this girl always does anything she wants. So she dated one of those skothanes and she got pregnant."* (P1: FocusGDI). Another was concerned that: *"We see children here, wearing those school miniskirts whereas our school has.... eish.....I don't know how to put it. The problem is they are not wearing their skirts, but then the length of the skirts are not as short as they. Because the girls out there, they tend to cut their skirts because they want us to see those…"* (P3: FocusGDI)

Having an external locus of control orientation is just one of the behaviours that children with absent fathers experience with their families. The child has other core beliefs of fear and inferiority, belief of vulnerability to harm or they tend to have low levels of harm avoidance (Jones, Leung & Harris, 2006). In South Africa, young women and young teen girls who come from homes with absent fathers often sell sex for survival, however, they often enter physically and sexually violent relationships (see Section 2.4.3, Chapter 2, p. 24), with young girls engaging in risky sexual behaviours (Harrison, Cleland & Frohlich, 2008; Salami & Okeke, 2018). The participants related their stories of other adolescents they knew of who were in abusive relationships due to the absence of a father: *"Her boyfriend aaa... is very abusive and he steals too"* (P1: FocusGDI). Another said: *"Maybe those fathers would reduce the rate of poverty, or girls being raped..."* (P1: FocusGDI) because, according to participants, in Tembisa: *"Some girls get beaten up by their boyfriends."* (P3: FocusGDI).

Jones et al. (2006) believe that the father's abandonment makes the adolescent fear and believe that others will not continue loving them or provide emotional support. A participant indicated that some of the young girls dated older men because *"Some of them say they need to be loved"* (P1: FocusGDI), however, Thobejane, Mulaudzi and Zitha (2017) write that blessers (also known as sugar daddies) take advantage of the high poverty status in South African townships and young girls who come from absent father families by offering them

things that are beyond their capacity, often because they want protection and affection. One participant said: *"... some seek for protection and stuff and some end up dating guys who are not decent, those guys who smoke and do all those stuff because they need the protection."* (P3: FocusGDI). A male participant gave his perception of girl children from fatherless homes: *"...people who don't sleep at home on Fridays, Saturdays, Sundays because they end up adopting that spirit of, what difference does it make? I don't have protection so I'd rather stick to my boyfriend..."* (P3: FocusGDI). He continued: *"Yes, that's because they need protection. If you could do your own research, ask those girls, "Do you have a father?" They will say "no" because they do not have that kind of protection they need so they prefer dating all those kind of guys because they are in need of that sort of protection."* (P3: FocusGDI).

Botho or *Ubuntu* is the connectedness of people to the common good, including one's descendants, so most Southern African communities practice this in caring for each other (Makusha et al., 2013). As explained in Section 2.2.3, Chapter 2 (p. 20-21), it is a common occurrence in black communities for people to view childrearing as a community and extended kin responsibility by grandparents, aunts and uncles, hence most children grow up in unmarried households and live in extended households headed by maternal kin (Ellerbe et al., 2018; Makusha & Richter, 2014). In circumstances in which the mother is struggling, cannot find employment or has limited resources, relatives in African communities provide support by giving money or payment in kind to alleviate the mother from monetary costs of the child's schooling and livelihood (Nduna, 2006; Lloyd & Blanc, 1996). A typical example of collective child-rearing and combined effort to support a child was demonstrated by a participant who said, *"My mum's brother is in Cape Town and my cousin sister she stays in ..... [inaudible] she also sends money. Then her other sister who is in Kenya she also got married there, she also sends money and some stuff. Then her other sister, she is in Plettenberg Bay, she also sends money."* (P1: FocusGDI). Children can always have other men and women whom they can regard as father and mother, whether their biological parents are alive or deceased (Makusha & Ritchter, 2014). A participant said: *"My brother was staying with my granny ..."* (P1:IndInt-1) while her mother was in Johannesburg for work.

4.3.3 Theme 3: Family Functioning

A family is a system of people who are related and interact with one another while harbouring their own individual differences and similarities that include cultural, social and biological characteristics (Ryan et al., 2005). Each member contributes towards the family

functioning effectively including a father's role in the family. In this theme I will discuss how roles are allocated and shared in South African families.

4.3.3.1 Sub-theme: Family Patterns

Globalisation is the primary reason women participating in work outside the home and for South African families now having dual earners (Sooryamoorthy & Makhoba, 2016). Consequently, family patterns have evolved due to economic consequences, formal education and wage employment that impact on the relationships and roles of husbands and wives (Amoateng & Heaton, 2007). Division of labour in the home for mothers and fathers has shifted as tasks are not just focused on inside household tasks but now include outside household tasks (Sooryamoorthy & Makhoba, 2016). In the first category I discuss how roles are distributed and shared in South African families, and in the second I discuss the different roles members play in families from which the father is absent and uninvolved.

4.3.3.1.1 Category: Role Allocation

The notion of the father as the head of the family in African communities still holds as historically, he was the one who provided economically, built a child's social identity, enforced standards of behaviour and made decisions regarding the family (Mkhize, 2006; Nduna & Jewkes, 2011). Participants said that a father was a leader because he was, *"Uhhmm.... yeah, the head of the house."* (P1: FocusGDI) and *"When a father is at home he could be a leader just as it is said that he should be leading the family."* (P1: IndInt IsiZulu-1-1). He is considered a leader because, *"A father could make sure that everything in the house is going well, like he could fix or replace a broken chair. So, he is a leader in the house."* (P1: IndInt IsiZulu-1).

Although fathers are considered and documented as the head of the family some move away from the traditional masculine roles discussed in the other two themes. A study by Smit (2002) of 400 English and Afrikaans fathers revealed that some did the nurturing and provided emotional support that was traditionally the role of the mothers. A participant from the current study demonstrated that this also happened with black African fathers: *"Ja. When my mother worked night shift he used to cook for us sometimes..."* (P1: IndIntSep-1), "*He helped take care of my younger sister when my mother was working night shift"* (P1: IndIntSep-1). It is evident that family members shared roles for the benefit of the family.

Role sharing occurs in families and it is not uncommon to find siblings assisting each with schoolwork and chores, especially when both parents work. A participant said that her older brother helped her with homework which used to be her father's role: "*Then when I return from school I find my brother here and then ask him some questions*." (P1: IndIntSep-1). Another participant reported that in his father's absence, while he was away at work. he took over as head of the family: *"As a boy, since my father is not available at the moment, I'm the father of the house, yes."* (P1: FocusGDI). As Nduna and Jewkes (2011) wrote, male children often take the role of head of the family in African societies. Sometimes mothers have to take over the responsibility of being both parents if the father is uninvolved in the child's upbringing, for example: *"My mother is a father and mother. I don't want to notice like bad things. My mother plays a good role of being a father."* 1: IndIntSep-1).

4.3.3.1.2 Category: Role Accountability

Black women are described as self-reliant, self-contained and inherently strong and resilient (Harrington, Crouther & Shipherd, 2010). Traditionally they have had to endure physical and psychological stressors as well as face challenging life circumstances in the contemporary world, because of absent fathers (Cooklin, Westrupp, Strazdius, Giallo, Martins & Nicholson, 2014). During the apartheid period they had to go out and find employment to support their children while fathers were away (Harrington, Crouther & Shipherd, 2010). Because mothers assume the task of child-rearing: *"She always makes sure there is food on the table and she is very protective of her children"* (P1: IndIntSep-1), whether the father is present or not.

Participants said that their mothers worked long hours, through statements such as: *"My mother is always busy at work. She goes to work at four a.m. and comes back at five p.m. and cooks, and by that time she will be tired and then goes to sleep."* (P1: IndIntSep-1)*, "Mmm... she was at work. Comes, eats, sleeps then goes back to work again"* (P2: FocusGDI), and *"She leaves at seven and comes back at six"* (P2: FocusGDI). This is the reality of Tembisa as it has many female headed households (Stats SA, 2018), and Lloyd and Blanc (1996) found that most of such households were economically disadvantaged. Therefore, to overcome the financial hardships and make sure there is food on the table, single mothers seek employment for income and access to resources (Cooklin et al., 2014).

4.3.4 Position of findings within the study's Conceptual framework

Section 4.3.1 of this Chapter reported that the participants had related their answers mostly to how father involvement impacts on the child (theme 1), suggesting that whatever the father did, as his attempt at being involved in his child's life, or did not, he directly or ultimately affected the child. The study's conceptual framework is grounded on a systems approach that suggests that a family's interrelated relationships have a great influence on each family member's life (Mosia, 2014; Walsh, 2016).

A basic assumption of the McMaster model is that all parts of the family are interrelated and that transactional patterns of the family system strongly shape the behaviour of family members (Miller, Ryan, Keitner, Bishop & Epstein, 2000). As such, the results of the current study were grouped to observe the father's impact on the child and the family because, as already stated, the McMaster Family Functioning Model is grounded on a systems approach (Walsh, 2016). Mothers sometimes deny fathers access to children, hence influencing the child's perception of their father with a negative impact (Matlakala et al., 2018; Okeke; 2018). Consequently, it was important to investigate whether the child's needs away from the mother's (individual needs over those of the family) were being fulfilled by the father.

In line with the study's conceptual framework, an involved father in South Africa is one who fulfils the mixed components of needs, which according to the conceptual framework is systems management and maintenance. This involves addressing the instrumental and affective needs of the family simultaneously, with such tasks as handling behaviour, solving family problems, responding to situations with appropriate feelings and care for family members. These were found in some of the participants' narratives (Miller et al., 2000). Fathers in the African context are expected to guide, lead by example and provide for the family (Makusha & Richter, 2014), therefore it was not a surprise that the participants commented on a father's role in life skill development and provision of resources. The participants also expressed their views on present and absent fathers' involvement and how each type of fathering resulted in differing levels of father involvement, as indicated in the study's framework. Within the current study's conceptual framework, it became evident that a father who addresses one sphere of the child's needs and not the other two can be perceived as portraying the least effective father involvement, and in the study's findings it was often absent fathers.

It also became evident from the participants' narratives that fathers can and are exchanging roles with mothers to care for the family. Koppen et al. (2018) write that fathers have over time developed a desire to be involved in their children's lives, as illustrated in Table 4.1 under the category *Nurturing and Support*. According to Cano and Baxter (2019), this rise in father involvement is accounted for by more mothers participating in the workforce, having more equal participation in parental duties and evolving parenting ideologies. In line with this, the study's conceptual framework illustrates that there is a continuous assignation and revaluation of roles based on needs. In situations when a father cannot fulfil his paternal role, older brothers and extended family step in to alleviate the stressors and challenges the family might be experiencing (Kamau & Davies, 2018). This validates the study's conceptual framework process of allocation and accountability that is constantly occurring because black families are traditionally extended, with the existence of social fathers as a norm due to urbanization, poverty and economic underdevelopment (Kamau & Davies, 2018; Makusha & Richter, 2014; Mohane, 2009). The Systems maintenance and management task in the conceptual framework subsumes role allocation and accountability for the stability of the family (Roy, 1990).

Lastly, the loss of a father role in South Africa has resulted in female headed households in which mothers have to step in and become breadwinners when a father is absent, as evident from some of the narratives. South Africa, particularly Tembisa, has many female-headed households (27.1%), with some children growing up in extended families (Stats SA, 2018). Many roles have to be shifted and shared among family members as a family member's role is not static and continues to expand (Rick & Stephen, 2009). A mother is able to be a provider because roles in a family are not solely determined by gender, and each family member is able to fulfil both instrumental and affective roles (Olah, Richter & Kotowska, 2014; Rick & Stephen, 2009). So, in line with the conceptual framework, a mother has to be a breadwinner so that the family is not overburdened when the father is absent (Walsh, 2016).

4.4 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

This section is a summary of the findings as answers to the research questions of this study. I incorporate some of the direct quotes from participants' direct responses to the research question as well as rely on some of the themes and sub-themes that were identified as research results. The main research question comprises four secondary questions, addressing which therefore answers it.

4.4.1 Secondary Question 1: How does an adolescent experience father involvement?

In answering the first question I focused on how the results presented themselves through the analysis of data in Chapter 3. It became evident that the adolescents viewed father involvement in two ways, namely, (i) how the father directly impacts the child, and (ii) how his involvement contributed towards the entire family.

Statistics already show that most children living in Tembisa come from female-headed households (StatsSA, 2018), and some of the participants had experienced present fathers while some had not experienced an involved father, even though he was still alive. A father's acceptance is valuable to a child's growth, impacting on who they will become in society (Mkhize, 2006; Rostad, Medina & Hurtig-Crosby, 2014).

Social and emotional development seemed to be a major concern for adolescents, as factors towards which a father should contribute. They spoke of how a father who is regarded as involved should guide and advise his child and felt that a father should guide the child on life issues and any other matters about which it would need advice. The participants perceived fathers as having more experience and knowledge on topics regarding intimate and social relationships, masculinity and future prospects. They also valued a father's guidance because they view him as a role model for both male and female adolescents equally. Male adolescents see a father as a figure that embodies masculinity and manhood, therefore, they imitate what he does. Female adolescents seek a father's approval when it comes to selecting a boyfriend, therefore trusting his judgement on their safety and wellbeing. An involved father was also seen by the participants as one who is academically interested and cares about the progress of the child, by doing homework with them, asking how their day was and providing resources to help with their schoolwork (see Section 4.3.1.1.1, Chapter 4, p. 92-93).

Still concerning the child, participants believed an involved father should be available and interact with his child (Parke, 2008). They felt that having to spend time with their father nurtured a strong bond between the two, and sharing activities engaged both equally, leaving the adolescent feeling loved and accepted. Having a good relationship with the fathers also seemed to be a very important aspect that adolescents regarded as an indication of an involved father. They explained that factors such as the frequency of physical and telephonic contact, doing household chores together and being part of recreational activities together determines the closeness of the father-child relationship. Another distinguishing attribute of an involved

father, according to participants, is his caring nature. Participants believed that a father who provided emotional support and is nurturing towards the child is an important factor. A father who concerns themselves with their child's emotional wellbeing, physical health and family health is seen as involved.

A father was also recognised by the participants as bringing a sense of stability to the home when he is involved. The participants felt a father who is present in the home brings stability, is able to protect the family and be the "*shield*" from harsh realities of the world, together with being a buffer during adversities. This confirms Carlson's (2006) opinion that fathers bring stability to the home by also alleviating monetary pressure. It is well documented that fathering involves providing financially for the family (Carson, 2006; Mkhize, 2006; Mkhize, 2006; Park, 2008), therefore it was not surprising to find that the participants also consider an involved father as one who covers the financial costs of the household, including the children's school fees and allowance.

Finally, one key note that was uncovered was that all the factors that have been discussed above regarding father involvement rely on and are strengthened by the father's residency. As discussed in Section 4.3.1.1, Chapter 4 (p.90), participants view a father's involvement as dependent, to some extent, on his residency and physical availability. Some literature is confirmed by the participants' perceptions of such an involved father (Farradina et al., 2017),

However, literature also cautions against this perspective by advising that father involvement varies across social contexts, therefore the participants' perceptions cannot be generalised to the greater community of South Africa (Carlson, 2006; Olah et al., 2014).

4.4.2 Secondary Question 2: Does a father's presence in the home matter?

According to the participants, for a father to monitor the child's behaviour and therefore be considered as present, he has to have direct contact with the child so as to protect it from risks such as delinquency, mental health issues, school dropout and crime (Seltzer & Bianchi, 1988). The participants, however, went on to stress that even though a father's presence means direct contact it does not necessarily require him to co-reside with the family. They highlighted that the father can live elsewhere and still be involved, as long as he ensures that he visits the child regularly. The constant visits, together with financially supporting the child, were

perceived as a non-resident father showing interest and commitment to the child, therefore being an involved father (see Section 2.2.3, Chapter 2, p.18).

A father's role goes beyond economical contributions, his presence in the home being necessary as he is also involved in childrearing (Carlson, 2006). Interviews with the participants revealed that a father's presence in the home allows him to monitor and control the child's behaviour. He is seen as having a responsibility of implementing accepted morality in the child and family (Lesejane, 2006), and there is a belief that mothers at times are enablers of problematic behaviour in their effort to avoid negative consequences for the child. Therefore, a father's presence in the home is necessary, with him being feared, respected and his command obeyed (Becvar & Becvar, 2002; Hunter, 2006).

The participants gave examples of scenarios they knew of in which there was no father in the home and the child was ungovernable. The examples demonstrated what Keshavarz and Baharundin (2013) explained as the authoritarian parenting style that African fathers enforced in the home so as to set boundaries and ensure that everyone in the home abided by them. One of the participants also said that if the father was not present in the home, or reachable, he would not be able to attend to the needs of the family efficiently. Nor would he be aware of the functioning of the family which would ultimately affect his child as well. A father is also seen as the shield and protector of the child and family. It became evident during the interviews that protection from fathers was highly valued. The family and child felt secure when the father was present in the home.

Finally, the participants confirmed that father's presence in the home is essential for the boy child as to influence appropriate masculinity, based on the extracts in Section 4.3.1.1.1, Chapter 4 (p. 94-95) Fathers are supposed to present a masculine role model to both their sons and daughters in the quest to protect their children. For daughters, a father presents a good example of responsible masculinity, therefore directly and indirectly influencing their criteria when choosing a potential partner. For a boy child, a present father in the home guides and teaches him how to be a man, how to behave like a male and not be ostracized by other male peers for being perceived as behaving like a female.

4.4.3 Secondary Question 3: Are fathers emotionally more involved with their daughters than with their sons?

Participants' opinion on the question of whether fathers are emotionally more involved with their daughters than with their sons varied greatly. One of the participants felt that a father's treatment towards his child is dependent on how close they are to each other. This confirmed with the view of Cooksey and Craig (1998) and Seltzer and Bianchi (1988) that there is no association between child gender and an absent father's lack of involvement.

The literature review in Chapter 2 indicated that there are other predictors of father involvement that need to be explored regarding father involvement based on gender. One of the factors that came out of the present study is that a father's level of involvement with his daughter and son is based on the relationship they have with the mother. A participant indicated that she had a paternal half-brother, but her father took greater care of her because her parents were still dating. Seltzer and Bianchi (1988) write that fathers are likely to be more committed to a child when they are in a relationship or marriage, because in the African context a child belongs to the broader family and it is generally accepted that a man "*o e gapa le namane*," that is, when a man marries or dates a woman he dates the child too (Lesejane, 2006).

Another participant contributed towards knowledge around father involvement in the African context by saying that it is based on the child's gender and is predicted by how the father can benefit from the child. A father's level of involvement is determined by the child's ability to carry on the family name and legacy. This confirms Mkhize's (2006) view that fatherhood in the African context involves being responsible for one's kinship and ensuring that there is no discontinuity in the family.

4.4.4 Secondary Question 4: What is the difference between a father's relationship with his child and that of the mother?

When determining the difference between a father's relationship with his child and that of the mother, the participants unanimously felt that a mother is more of the nurturing and gentle parent while the father is firmer and more assertive. It was expected that participants would view their mothers as the more nurturing because it has been documented that they show maternal protectiveness over their children (Jones et al., 2006), because they spend most of their time in daily routine care whereas fathers spend time with the children engaging in play and educational activities (Cano & Baxter, 2019).

Mothers love their children unconditionally and fathers are reported to love their children conditionally, based on their actions and performance (Odeke, 2018). The reason for the conditional love is that a father is considered as having a 'God-given' and moral duty of facilitating and adjusting the child's connection to the demands of the external world (Lindegger, 2006). His vocabulary and language skills teach the child public speaking and risk-taking, while the child learns to consider other people's feelings during its time with the mother (Cano & Baxter, 2019).

However, the above is reported with caution and is restricted to the current study's findings because literature suggests otherwise. Studies show that both contemporary mothers and fathers can be nurturing, protectors, role models, playmates, caregivers and providers with relative importance depending on the individual (Fenge, Cossette, Cyr & Julien, 2018). A study by Goldberg, Smith and Perry-Jeukins (2012) of gay couples reported that they were most likely to produce the traditional model of parenting when one partner was the primary caregiver and the other the main provider.

4.5 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

There is a growing body of literature about father involvement and what constitutes father involvement, as illustrated in Chapter two. Nevertheless, previous studies such as those by pioneers of father involvement, Lamb, Pleck, Charmov and Levive (1985), generate findings that are sampled from Western cultures and are from a previous period of fathering, making their findings inapplicable to be generalised to the African population and not relevant to what is currently happening in the new millennium. The findings from this current study therefore contribute to the body of knowledge on adolescents and father involvement in the African context. Findings from this study specifically add knowledge to literature on adolescents from Tembisa and how they perceive the phenomenon of father involvement in which there are many female-headed households. Finally, findings from this study also contribute to the literature on father involvement in semi-urban areas in South Africa.

4.5.1 Contribution to Practice

This study can also make professionals such as psychologists, counsellors, teachers and school governing bodies more aware of the vital role an African father has on the child's future aspirations and wellbeing. The findings can inform family therapists viewing parenting styles from a non-Western perspective where authoritative parenting style is considered the only

healthy parenting style. It is essential for family therapists and counsellors to consider the essence of a traditional father archetype a black man brings to the family.

The study's findings can also contribute to professionals' knowledge about adolescent's needs and how their lives are impacted on by family dynamics in the African context. In the study, masculinity and behaviour control seemed to be dominant factors that ultimately influence an adolescent's adult identity (Idenmudia et al., 2016), therefore, social workers and educational psychologists should take heed of the findings of this study, as early interventions in high schools, particularly in areas such as Tembisa where most fathers are absent, it is necessary to monitor the learner's psychological needs, severity and type of problem which may prompt psychological treatment, medical services and welfare services. School governing bodies and authorities therefore should employ the above-mentioned professionals in programmes that aim at modifying psychological and defiant behaviour as well as offer support to the welfare of the learners.

It is easy for boy children to engage in negative forms of masculinity identities in fatherless homes. Relevant professionals could look into this issue and work towards promoting alternative images of men by initiating formal education at schools, universities, training institutions, media and nongovernmental organisations, in which key areas are displayed, modelled and communicated (Makusha & Richter, 2014).

4.5.2 Contribution to Policy

Policies focusing on fathering are aimed at encouraging fathers to be involved in their children's lives, however, for a long period they focused largely on financial provision of fathers and less on fathers being involved in non-economic ways (Cabrera & Peters, 2000). As the study's findings indicate, emotional involvement together with financial provision of a father is important to the child and the family. I will provide ways this study's findings can contribute to different forms of policy.

4.5.2.1 Welfare Policy

Most national programmes in South Africa provide knowledge and services for young mothers in low income families but do not regard the fathers. Young fathers do not receive support or services with regards to parenting as they are usually blamed for the pregnancy by

society (Doherty, 2008). As such, young fathers need programmes that focus on empowering them through employment and employability, parental involvement and parenting skills.

Non-resident fathers in South Africa are often unemployed, underemployed migrant workers or work fewer hours per week, therefore leaving them with fewer resources (Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2007). Policymakers should therefore consider implementing programmes that help unemployed and low-income fathers improve their economic status by providing job training, employment services and career-advancing education, coordinating with existing employment services (Doherty, 2008). Fathers also need to be offered responsible parenting programmes that teach them parenting skills and counselling along with encouraging them with regards to child support payments.

4.5.2.2 Workplace Policy

Fathers are said to be more likely to take paid annual leave or sick leave than family responsibility leave which is often unpaid, or take leave for a much shorter duration (Doherty, 2008; Kolm, 2015). Reasons for this preference may be influenced by a father being assigned the role of being a breadwinner, therefore they cannot afford to miss a payment (Kolm, 2015). Furthermore, employers who offer family responsibility leave days do not pay if the leave days exceed three (Mungai, 2015). Therefore, workforce policymakers should consider giving both parents equal eligibility towards family responsibility leave.

4.5.2.3 Paternal Policy

Child paternity in hospitals is established to ensure the child gets support and has access to the survivor's insurance and healthcare (Padi et al., 2014). Child paternity is established at birth, when the mother is required to disclose the father at the hospital. From the findings in this study, more effort should be made to establish paternity in hospitals so that fathers can be called to exercise their responsibility (Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2007).

4.5.2.4 Child Support Policy

The amount of child support continues to outweigh the amount received, according to Nduna, (2014). Currently, child support laws are not linked to visitation rights so fathers are not forced to have contact with their child (Tanis-LeMonda & Cabrera, 1999). Therefore, it can be perceived that the child support policy does not establish what it had set out to achieve,

namely, to encourage responsible parenting, fostering wellbeing of families and reduction of welfare costs (Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2007). Child support policy was designed to strengthen the role of fathers in the lives of their children, particularly for those who are economically disadvantaged, who are absent and do not financially support the child's care (Cabrera & Peters, 2000). For that reason, it is essential for child support policies to advocate non-economic ways for fathers to be involved in and contribute towards their children's lives. An approach to be considered by policymakers would be that co-parenting be enforced as a way for fathers to offset costly impediments on the family and enhance the parent child relationship (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). According to Ellerbe et al. (2018), in addition to time, engagement and responsibility, an effective non-resident father demonstrates effective father involvement by co-parenting.

4.6 LIMITATIONS TO THE STUDY

During the second individual interview, language was a barrier, as one of the participants responded in IsiZulu, therefore significant translation by a third party had to be given at a later period after transcription. This was a limitation because the process of translating may have missed the essence of the participant's message. Another limitation that occurred was during the individual interview with the IsiZulu speaking participant. There is a probability that valuable information may have not been fully explored due to the language barrier and the participant might not have been given the opportunity to elaborate on particular concepts that were misunderstood.

Another potential limitation is that the sample size of the current study consisted of only five participants, who were purposefully selected. In research, a small sample size of five participants is considered too small to generalise the results, therefore the findings in this study cannot be considered to be the views of every boy and girl adolescent in Tembisa. Some adolescents may have differing opinions on father involvement based on their individual experiences.

4.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

With the sample size of the study being small, I recommend that another study replicate this one with a larger sample. This will ensure that findings clearly indicate with certainty the perceptions of adolescents.

The current study was focused on obtaining results from the immediate nuclear family. Therefore, to contribute towards knowledge about father involvement, I recommend that a similar study be conducted investigating how extended families contribute towards fathers not being involved in their children's upbringing.

Lastly, accounts from fathers would offer richness and in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of father involvement and might give differing opinions from physically present and absent fathers (Bryan, 2013). This investigation would contribute knowledge to the phenomenon by focusing on individual preferences when it comes to roles and responsibilities that a father has to take up. This knowledge should inform literature as to what constitutes to a father's preferences based on culture and personal traits.

4.8 CONCLUSION

In this study, father involvement was investigated according to how adolescents in Tembisa perceive it. From the conversations with the participants, it became evident that father involvement is characterized by the role a father plays in the family, the different forms of father involvement in terms of his presence and the influence it has on child outcomes. Thematic analysis that was used in the current study proposed three ways in which adolescents perceive a father's involvement:

1. Impact of father presence/absence on the child on the child
2. Father's contribution towards the family
3. Family functioning

Within these three themes, it became evident that father involvement includes being the leader of the family and taking the responsibility of all financial affairs of the family; being emotionally available and accessible to the child regardless of the father's residency; and protecting the family against any external threats. He is also seen as being the custodian of moral and behavioural authority and having a responsibility to ensure that the standards of behaviour are upheld. An involved father is considered a role model, particularly to boy children and young men as they establish their own identity as men by modelling and teaching them about alternative masculinities rather than hegemonic masculinity. A father is also viewed as being an ideal encapsulation for future partners for their daughters.

REFERENCES

Adamsons, K. (2018). Quantity versus quality of nonresident father involvement: Deconstructing the argument that quantity doesn't matter. *Journal of Child Custody*, *15*(1), 26-34. doi: 10.1080/15379418.2018.1437002

Agarwal, V. (2020). *The semi-structured interviewing method in a qualitative study examining complementary and alternative medicine providers' knowledge discourse*. SAGE Research Methods Cases. doi:10.4135/9781529715989

Akpor, O., Bello, C., & Irinoye, O. (2018). Health status of families: A comparative study of one-parent and two-parent families in ondo state, nigeria. *African Journal of Primary Health Care & Family Medicine*, *10*(1), 1-8. doi:10.4102/phcfm.v10i1.1550

Alio, A. (2017). *Rationale and strategies for engaging fathers in maternal and infant health programs: A summary of promising practices*. New York: University of Rochester Medical Center, NYS Maternal & Infant Health Center of Excellence.

Allen, S. M., & Daly, K. J. (2007). *The effects of father involvement: an updated research summary of the evidence*. Guelph, ON, Centre for Families, Work & Well-Being, University of Guelph. Retrieved from http://www.deslibris.ca/ID/218523.

Amankwaa, L. (2016). Creating protocols for trustworthiness in qualitative research, *Journal of Cultural Diversity*, *23*(3), 121-127.

American Psychological Association. (2016). *The Changing Role of the Modern Day Father*. Retrieved from https://www.apa.org/pi/families/resources/changing-father.

Amoateng, A.Y., & Heaton, T.B. (eds). (2007). Families and households in post-apartheid *South Africa: socio-demographic perspectives*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Ancell, K., Bruns, D., & Chitiyo, J. (2018). The importance of father involvement in early childhood programs. *Young Exceptional Children*, 21(1), 22-33.

Anderson, K. (2015). Father absence, childhood stress, and reproductive maturation in South Africa. *Human Nature*, *26*(4), 401-425. doi:10.1007/s12110-015-9243-6

Anderson, S. (2000). *The Journey from Abandonment to Healing*. New York: Berkley Books

Andres, L. (2012). Validity, reliability, and trustworthiness. In Andres, L. *Designing & doing survey research* (pp. 115-128). 55 City Road, London: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781526402202

Ayres, L. (2012). Thematic Coding and Analysis. In L. M Given (Eds.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods* (p. 868). Thousand Oaks: SAGE.

Atobrah, D. (2004). Children of dead mothers and "unknown" fathers. *Research Review Supplement, 1*(16), 68-88.

Barnett, R. C., & Baruch, G. K. (1987). Determinants of fathers' participation in family work. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, *49*, 29-40.

Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. *The Qualitative Report, 13*(4), 544-559. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol13/iss4/2

Berger, L. M., & McLanahan, S. S. (2012). *Child wellbeing in two-parent families: How do resources, relationships, and parenting matter* (Fragile Families Working Paper). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Berger, L., & McLanahan, S. (2015). Income, relationship quality, and parenting: Associations with child development in two-parent families. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *77*(4), 996-1015. doi:10.1111/jomf.12197

Berk, L. E. (2009). *Child development*. (8th ed.). United States of America: Pearson.

Beyens, I., Frison, E., & Eggermont, S. (2016). "i don't want to miss a thing": Adolescents' fear of missing out and its relationship to adolescents' social needs, facebook use, and facebook related stress. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *64*, 1-8.

Bhati, K., Hoyt, W., & Huffman, K. (2014). Integration or Assimilation? Locating Qualitative Research in Psychology, *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 11*(1), 98-114.doi 10.1080/14780887.2013.772684.

Bishop, P. (2010). Multisite case study. In A. J. MillsG. Durepos & E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of case study research* (pp. 588-591). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781412957397.n219

Blair, E. (2015). A reflexive exploration of two qualitative data coding techniques. *Journal of Methods and Measurement in the Social Sciences, 6*(1), 14-29.

Blyth, D., & Foster-Clark, F. (1987). Gender differences in perceived intimacy with different members of adolescents' social networks. *Sex Roles, 17*(12), 689-718.

Booth, A., Scott., M. E., & King, V. (2010). Father residence and adolescent problem Behavior: Are youth always better off in two-parent families? *Journal of Family Issues, 31*(5), 585-605.

Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming Qualitative Information: Thematic Analysis and Code Development*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(1), 77-101.

Braun, V., Clarke, V. & Rance, N. (2015). How to use thematic analysis with interview data. In A. Vossler & N. Moller *The counselling and psychotherapy research handbook* (pp. 183-197). 55 City Road, London: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781473909847.n13

Bronte-Tinkew, J., Moore, K. A., Capps, R. C. & Zaff, J. (2006). The influence of father-involvement on youth risk behaviors among adolescents: A comparison of native-born and immigrant families. *Social Science Research, 35*, 181-209.

Bronte-Tinkew, J., Bowie, L., & Moore, K. (2007). Fathers and Public Policy. *Applied Development Science, 4*, 254–259.

Breakwell, M. G., Smith, J., A., & Wright, D., B. (2012). *Research Methodology in Psychology*. London: SAGE Publications.

Cano, T., & Baxter, J. (2019). A Matter of Time: Father Involvement and Child Cognitive Outcomes. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 81*, 164–184. DOI:10.1111/jomf.12532

Carcary, M. (2009). The Research Audit Trail-Enhancing Trustworthiness in Qualitative Inquiry. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods, 7*(1), 11-24.

Cabrera, N., & Peters, H. E. (2000) Public Policies and Father Involvement. *Marriage & Family Review, 29*(4), 295-314. doi: 10.1300/J002v29n04_04

Cabrera, N., & Tamis-LeMonda, C. S. (Eds.) (2013). *Handbook of Father Involvement: Multidisciplinary Perspectives*, 2nd Edition. Taylor & Francis.

Carlson, M.J. (2006). Family Structure, Family Involvement and Adolescent Behavioral Outcome. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 68*, 137-154.

Carson, D., Gilmore, A., Perry, C., & Gronhaug, K. (2001). *Qualitative Marketing Research*. London: Sage.

Castillo, J. T., & Sarver, C. M. (2012). Non-resident Fathers' Social Networks: The Relationship between Social Support and Father Involvement. *Personal Relationships, 19*(4), 759–774.

Centre for Social Development in Africa & Sonke Gender Justice. (2011). *So we are ATM fathers: A study of absent fathers in Johannesburg*. Retrieved from http://www.uj.ac.za/EN/Faculties/humanities/departments/Research Centres/csda/Documents/MenCare%20Absent%20Father%208pager%20v4%20final.pdf

Chui, W.Y., Lee, S.K., Tsang, C.K. (2016). Father involvement in Hong Kong: By multitraitmultimethod model and item response theory (IRT). *Personality and Individual Differences, 98,* 333–344. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2016.04.065

Clark, S., Cotton, C., & Marteleto, L. (2015). Family ties and young fathers' engagement in cape town, south africa. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *77*(2), 575-589. doi:10.1111/jomf.12179

Coates, E. E., & Phares, V. (2019). Pathways Linking Nonresident Father Involvement and Child Outcomes. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 28,* 1681–1694.

Coe, C. (2011). What is Love? The Materiality of Care in Ghanaian Transnational Families. *International Migration, 49*(6), 7-24. doi:10.7282/T39S1SN7.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (Eds.). (2011). *Research Methods in Education* (7th ed.). London, England: Routledge.

Coley, R. L. & Morris, J. E. (2002). Comparing father and mother reports of father involvement among low- income minority families. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *64*(4), 982-997.

Connelly, L.M. (2016). Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research. *MEDSURG Nursing*, *25*(6), 435-436.

Cooney, T. M., Pedersen, F. A., Indelicato, S., & Palkovitz, R. (1993). Timing of fatherhood: Is on-time optimal? *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, *55*, 205-215.

Conrad, C. F., & Serlin, C. R. (Eds.). (2006). *The SAGE Handbook for Research in Education: Engaging Ideas and Enriching Inquiry.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Cope, D.G. (2014). Methods and meanings: Credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum, 41*(1), 89-91.

Cooklin, A. R., Westrupp, E., Strazdins, L., Giallo, R., Martin, A., & Nicholson, J. M. (2014). Mothers' work–family conflict and enrichment: associations with parenting quality and couple relationship. *Child: Care, Health and Development*, *41*(2), 266-277. doi.org/10.1111/cch.12137

Coovadia, H., Jewkes, R., Barron, P., Sanders, D., & McIntyre, D. (2009). The health and health system of South Africa: historical roots of current public health challenges. *The Lancet, 9692*(374), 5-11. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(09)60951-X.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Culpin, I., Heron, J., Araya, R., & Joinson, C. (2015). Early childhood father absence and depressive symptoms in adolescent girls from a uk cohort: The mediating role of early menarche. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 43*(5), 921-931. doi:10.1007/s10802-014-9960-z

Diamond, M. J. (2004). The Shaping of Masculinity: Revisioning Boys Turning Away from their Mothers to Construct Male Gender Identity. *International Journal of Psychoanalysis, 85*(2), 359-379.

De Carvalho, A. (2016). Fathers in cultural context. *Culture & Psychology, 22*(2).

Department of Economics Tufts University. (2006). *All in the Extended Family: Grandparents, Aunts, And Uncles And Educational Attainment*. Retrieved from http:// ase.tufts.edu/econ/papers/200610.pdf.

Denny, K., Brewton-Tiayon, S., Lykke, L. C., & Milkie, M. A. (2014). Admonished, then excused: Portrayals of fathers' low levels of involvement with children across the 21st and 20th centuries. *Fathering, 12*(3), 221-241.

Doherty, W. J. (2008). Public Policy and Couple Relationships: A Commentary on Cabrera et al. (2008). *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 70, 1114–1117.

Dyer, K., Roby, J. L. Mupedziswa, R., & Day, R. (2011). Father Involvement in Botswana: How Adolescents Perceive Father Presence and Support. *Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Social Services, 92*(4), 426-431. doi: 10.1606/1044-3894.4168

Epstein, N. B.,. Baldwin, L. M., & Bishop, D. S. (1983). The Mcmaster Family Assessment Device. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 9*(2), 171-180. doi.org/10.1111/j.1752-0606.1983.tb01497.x

Fick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research* (4th ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (2005). The Interview: From neutral stance to political involvement. In Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp 695-728) (3rd ed.), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Encyclopaedia of Children's Health. (2006). *Abandonment*. Retrieved from http://www.healthofchildren.com/A/Abandonment.html

Elger, T. (2012). Bounding the case. In Mills, A. J., Durepos, G., & Wiebe, E. (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Case Study Research* (pp. 56-58). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

Ellerbe, C. Z., Jones, J. B., & Carlson, M. J. (2018). Race/Ethnic Differences in Nonresident Fathers' Involvement After a Nonmarital Birth. *Social Science Quarterly, 99*, 1158-1180. doi: 10.1111/ssqu.12482

Epstein, N. B., Bishop, D. S., & Levin, S. (2007). The McMaster Model of Family Functioning. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 4*, 19-31. doi:10.1111/j.1752-0606.1978.tb00537.x.

Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Childhood and society*. New York: Norton.

Falci, C. D. (1997). *The effects of family structure and family process on the psychological well-being of children: From the children's point of view* (Master's thesis). Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA.

Farradinna, S., Psikologi, F., & Riau, U. I. (2017). Interdependence Of Roles, Work-Family Roles And Psychological Strain: A Study On Married Working Women In Indonesia. *Humanika, 24*(2), 73-83.

Fazel, F. (2017). Responding to the challenge of father absence and fatherlessness in the South African context: A case study involving concerned fathers from the North West Province. *Stellenbosch Theological Journal, 3*, 89–113.

Fenge, E. A., Cossette, L., Cyr, C., & Julien, D. (2018). Parental Involvement Among Adoptive Gay Fathers: Associations With Resources, Time Constraints, Gender Role and Child Adjustment. *Pschology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity, 6*(1), 1-10.

Flouri, E. (2006). Parental interest in children's education, children's self-esteem and locus of control, and later educational attainment: Twenty-six year follow-up of the 1970 British Birth Cohort. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*, 41-55.

Flouri, E., & Buchaman, A (2004). Early father's and mother's involvement and child's later educational outcomes. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 74*, 141-153.

Forgarty, K & Evans, G. D. (2009). The Hidden Benefits of Being an Involved Father. *Florida Cooperative Extension Service*. *1*, 1-5.

Freeks, F. E. (2015). The influence of role-players on the character-development and character-building of South African college students. *South African Journal of Education*, *35*(3), 1-13, doi: 10.15700/saje.v35n3a1086

Frydenberg, E. (2008). *Adolescent coping: Advances in theory, research and practice*. London, England: Routledge.

Gayman, M. D., Turner, R. J., Cislo, A. M., & Eliassen, A. H. (2011). Talking South African fathers: A critical examination of men's constructions and experiences of fatherhood and fatherlessness. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, *31*(6), 880-908.

Gephart Jr., R. (2018). Qualitative research as interpretive social science. In Cassell, C., Cunliffe, A. L., & Grandy, G. *The sage handbook of qualitative business and management research methods* (pp. 33-53). 55 City Road, London: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781526430212

Green, D. O. (2012). Categories. In L. M Given (Eds.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods* (pp. 72). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Greene, R. R., Galambos, C., & Lee, Y. (2003) Resilience Theory, *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, *8*(4), 75-91, doi: 10.1300/J137v08n04_05

Gibbs, A., Crankshaw, T., Lewinsohn, R., Chirawu, P., & Willan, S. (2017) 'I play with the baby so that people can see that I'm a man': Young fathers' involvement in the first 1 000 days of a child's life in South Africa. *South African Review of Sociology*, *48*(1), 67-84. doi: 10.1080/21528586.2016.1204244

Goldberg, J. S. (2015). Identity and Involvement Among Resident and Nonresident Fathers. *Journal of Family Issues*, *36*(7), 852 –879.

Golden, S. L. (2018). *Fathers Of Gay Sons: The Relationship Between Father-Role Confidence and Father Involvement* (Doctoral thesis). Capella University, United States of America.

Gallinetti, J. (2006). Legal aspects of Faterhood in South Africa. In: L. Richter & R. Morrell (Eds.), *Baba: Men and fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 201-215). Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.

Grange, H. (2013). *SA: A nation of deadbeat fathers.* IOL. Retrieved from http://www.iol.co.za/lifestyle/family/parenting/sa-a-nation-of-deadbeat-dads-1492530

Grix, J. (2004). *The foundations of research*. Basingstoke, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Guarin, A., & Meyer, D. R. (2018). Are low earnings of nonresidential fathers a barrier to their involvement with children?. *Children and Youth Services Review, 91*, 304–318.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M. & Namey, E. E. (2012). Introduction to applied thematic analysis. In Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M., & Namey, E. E. *Applied thematic analysis* (pp. 3-20). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781483384436

Hall, K., & Posel, D. (2019). Fragmenting the family? the complexity of household migration strategies in post-apartheid south africa. *Journal of Development and Migration*, *10*(2). doi:10.2478/izajodm-2019-0004

Hamann, C., Mkhize, T., & Götz, G. (2018). Backyard and informal dwellings (2001-2016). Retrieved fromhttp://www.gcro.ac.za/outputs/map-of-the-month/detail/backyard-and-informal-dwellings-2001-2016/#

Hamilton, L. & Corbett-Whittier, C. (2013). Defining case study in education research. In Hamilton, L., & Corbett-Whittier, C. *Bera/Sage Research Methods in Education: Using case study in education research* (pp. 3-21). London: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781473913851

Hammersley, M. & Traianou, A. (2012). Autonomy and informed consent. In Hammersley, M., & Traianou, A. *Ethics in qualitative research: Controversies and contexts* (pp. 75-98). London: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781473957619

Hamoudi, A., & Nobles, J. (2014). Do daughters really cause divorce? stress, pregnancy, and family composition. *Demography*, *51*(4), 1423-1449.

Harrington, E. F., Crouther, J. H., & Shipherd, J. C. (2010). Trauma, binge eating, and the "strong Black woman". *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *78*(4), 469–479. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019174

Harris, M. K., Furstenberg, F. F., & Marmer, J. K. (1998). Paternal Involvement with Adolescents in intact families: The influence of fathers over the life course, *Demograpy*, *35*(2), 201-216.

Harrison, A., Cleland, J., & Frohlich, J. (2008). Young People's Sexual Partnerships in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa: Patterns, Contextual Influences, and HIV Risk. *Studies in Family Planning*, *39*(4), 295-308. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1728-4465.2008.00176.x

HealthyChildren.org. (2015). *Roles within the Family*. Retrieved from https://www.healthychildre.org/English/family-life/family-dynamics/Pages/Roles-Within-the-Family.a

Hewlett, S. B. (2000). Culture, History, and Sex. *Marriage & Family Review, 29*(2-3), 59-73, DOI: 10.1300/J002v29n02_05

Hlabyago, K. E., & Ogunbanjo, G. A. (2009). The experiences of family caregivers concerning their care of HIV/AIDS orphans. *South Africa Family Practice, 51*(6), 506-511.

Högnäs, R., & Williams, H. (2017). Maternal kinship involvement and father identity in fragile families. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 38(2), 249-262. doi:10.1007/s10834-016-9487-2

Holborn, C. (2011). Two thirds of children grow up without both parents. *South African Institute of Race Relations*, 1, 1-2.

Holborn, C., & Eddy, G. (2011). Fractured families: A crisis for South Africa. In First Steps to Healing The South African Family. *South African Institute of Race Relations, 1,* 1-6.

Hood, J. (1993). *Men, Work and Family*. London: Sage.

Horvath, C., Lee, C., & Bax, K. (2015). How similar are mothers and fathers of young children in their parenting responses and goals? *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 24*(12), 3542-3551. doi:10.1007/s10826-015-0155-1

Hosegood, V., & Madhavan, S. (2012). Understanding fatherhood and father involvement in South Africa: Insights from surveys and population cohorts. *Fathering, 10*(3), 257-273.

Huang, J., Kim, Y., Sherraden, M., & Clancy, M. (2017). Unmarried mothers and children's social-emotional development: The role of child development accounts. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 26(1), 234-247. doi:10.1007/s10826-016-0551-1.

Hudson, L., & Ozanne, J. (1988). Alternative Ways of Seeking Knowledge in Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 14*(4), 508–521.

Hunter, M. (2006). Fathers without amandla: Zulu Speaking men and fatherhood. In L. Ritchter, & R. Morell (Eds.), *Baba: Men and Fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 99-107). Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.

Hunter, M. (2007). The changing political economy of sex in South Africa: The significance of unemployment and inequalities to the scale of the AIDS pandemic. *Social Science & Medicine, 64*, 689–700.

Idemudia, E., Maepa, M., & Moamogwe, K. (2016). Dynamics of Gender, Age, Father Involvement and Adolescents' Self-harm and Risktaking Behaviour in South Africa. *Gender & Behaviour, 14*(1), 6846-6859.

Jaga, A., Arabandi, B., Bagraim, J., & Mdlongwa, S. (2018). Doing the 'gender dance': Black women professionals negotiating gender, race, work and family in post-apartheid South Africa. *Community, Work & Family*, *21*(4), 429-444. doi:10.1080/13668803.2017.1311840

Jessee, V., & Adamsons, K. (2018). Father involvement and father-child relationship quality: An intergenerational perspective. *Parenting, Science and Practice*, *18*(1), 28-44. doi:10.1080/15295192.2018.1405700

Jones, C. J., Leung, N., & Harris, G. (2006). Father-daughter relationship and eating psychopathology: The mediating role of core beliefs. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *45*(3), 319-330.

Jordan, L. C., & Lewis, M. L. (2005). Paternal Relationship Quality as a Protective Factor: Preventing Alcohol Use Among African American Adolescents. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *31*(2), 152-171

Jorgensen, M., & Phillips, L. (2002). *Discourse analysis as theory and method*. London, England: Sage.

Kamau, G. N., & Davies, N. (2018). Daughters and absent fathers: Triumph, loss and pain. *Psycho-analytic Psychotherapy in South Africa*, *26*(2), 13-48.

Kaya, A., Iwamoto, D.K., Brady, J., Clinton, L., & Grivel, M. (2019). The Role of Masculine Norms and Gender Role Conflict on Prospective Well-Being Among Men. *Psychology of Men & Masculinities*, *20*, 142–147.

Keshavarz, S., & Baharudin, R. (2013). Perceived Parenting Style of Fathers and Adolescents' Locus of Control in a Collectivist Culture of Malaysia: The Moderating Role of Fathers' Education. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, *174*(3), 253–270.

Khaleque, A. (2018). Worldwide Implications of Parental Love and Lack of Love on Children's and Adults' Psychological Adjustment and Maladjustment: Meta-analytic Evidence. *Journal of Mental Disorders and Treatment*, *4*(1), 1-2. doi:10.4172/2471-271X.1000150

Kinsinger, S. W., Laurenceau, J.P., Carver, C.S., & Antoni, M. H. (2011). Perceived partner support and psychosexual adjustment to breast cancer. *Psychology and Health*, *26*(12), 1571–1588.

Kienstra, H. H., & Heijden, P. G. (2015). Using Correspondence Analysis in Multiple Case Studies. *Bulletin de Me´thodologie Sociologique*, *1*(28), 5–22.

Kohn, K. S. (2015). Money Can't Buy You Love: Valuing Contributions by Nonresidential Fathers. *Brooklyn Law Review*, *81*, 53-110.

Köppen, K., Kreyenfeld, M., & Trappe, H. (2018). Loose ties? determinants of father-child contact after separation in germany. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *80*(5), 1163-1175. doi:10.1111/jomf.12504

Kramer, K., Myhra, L., Zuiker, V., & Bauer, J. (2016). Comparison of poverty and income disparity of single mothers and fathers across three decades: 1990-2010. *Gender Issues*, *33*(1), 22-41. doi:10.1007/s12147-015-9144-3

Kristin, B., Imac, M., & Marion, S. (2016). Risk and protective factors related to fathers' positive involvement and negative reinforcement with 1-year-olds. *Parenting*, *16*(1), 1-21. doi:10.1080/15295192.2016.1116891

Lamb, M. E. (1987). *The father's role: Cross-cultural perspectives*. London, England: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Lamb, M. E., Pleck, J. H., & Levine, J. A. (1985). The role of the father in child development: The effects of increased paternal involvement. In B. B. Lahey & A. E. Kazdin (Eds.), *Advances in clinical child psychology* (Vol. 8, pp. 229-266), Boston, MA: Springer.

Lansford, J. E., Godwin, J., Alampay, L. P., Uribe Tirado, L. M., Zelli, A., Al-Hassan, S. M., Bacchini, D., Bombi, A. S., Bornstein, M. H., Chang, L., Deater-Deckard, K., Di Giunta, L., Dodge, K. A., Malone, P. S., Oburu, P., Pastorelli, C., Skinner, A. T., Sorbring, E., Tapanya S. (2016). Mothers', fathers' and children's perceptions of parents' expectations about children's family obligations in nine countries. *International Journal of Psychology*, *51*(5), 366-74. doi:10.1002/ijop.12185

Leininger, M. M. (2015). Leininger's father protective care. In McFarland, M. M., & Wehbe-Alamah, H. B(Eds.*), Culture care diversity and universality: A worldwide theory of nursing* (3rd ed.). Burlington, MA: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Lesejane, D. (2006). Fatherhood from African Cultural Perspective. In R. Morrell and L. Richter, (Eds.), *Baba: Men and fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 173-181). Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Letiecq, B. L., Koblinsky, S. A., Harriman, F. (2003). African-American Fathering of Young Children in Violent Neighborhoods: Paternal Protectie Strategies and Their Preditors. *Fathering*, *1*(3), 215-237.

Leung, L. (2015). Validity, reliability and generalizability in qualitative research. *Journal of Medicine and Primary Care*, *4*(3), 324-327.

Levetan, J., & Wild, L. (2016). The implications of maternal grandmother coresidence and involvement for adolescent adjustment in south africa. *International Journal of Psychology*, *51*(5), 356-365. doi:10.1002/ijop.12178

LeVine, R. A., Dixon, S., LeVine, S., Richman, A., Leiderman, P. H., Keefer, C. H., & Brazelton, T. B. (1992). *Child care and culture: Lessons from Africa*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Levton, R., van der Gaag, N., Greene, M., Kaufman, M., & Barker, G. (2015). *State of the World's Fathers*: A MenCare Advocacy Publication. Washington, DC: Promundo, Rutgers, Save the Children, Sonke Gender Justice, and the MenEngage Alliance.

Levy, J. S. (2008). Case studies: Types, designs, and logics of inference. *Conflict Management and Peace Science, 25*, 1-18.

Lewinsohn, R., Crankshaw, T., Tomlinson, M., Gibbs, A., Butler, S., & Smit, J. (2018) "This baby came up and then he said, "I give up!": The interplay between unintended pregnancy, sexual partnership dynamics and social support and the impact on women's well-being in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Midwifery*, *62*, 29-35.

Liamputtong, P. (2011). *Focus group methodology: Principles and practice*. London: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781473957657

Lippman, L.H., & Wilcox, W.B. (2011). World family map: Mapping family change and child well-being outcomes. *Child Trends*, *1*, 1-74.

Lindegger, G. (2006). The father in the mind. In L. Richter & R. Morrell (Eds.), *Baba: Men and fatherhood in South Africa*. Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.

Lloyd, C.B., & Blanc, A. K. (1996). Children's Schooling in sub-Saharan Africa: The Role of Fathers, Mothers, and Others. *Population and Development Review*, *22*(2), 265-298.

Loury, L. D. (2006). *All in the extended family: Grandparents, aunts, and uncles and educational attainment* (Department of economics working paper). Medford, MA: Tufts University. Retrieved from http://ase.tufts.edu/econ/papers/200610.pdf

Lund, F. (2008). *Changing Social Policy: The Child Support Grant In South Africa*. Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.

Mack, L. (2010). The philosophical underpinnings of educational research. *Polyglossia*, *19*, 5-11.

Mackenzie, N., & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods, and methodology. *Issues in Educational Research*, *16*(2), 193-205.

Mackay, N., Woodsong, C., McQueen, K. M., Guest, G., & Namey, E. (2005). *Qualitative Research Methods: Adata Collector's Field Guide*. North Carolina: Family Health International.

Madhavan, S., Townsend, N., & Garey, A. (2008). Absent breadwinners: Fathers' connections and paternal support in rural South Africa. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, *34*(3), 647-663.

Makusha, T., & Richter, L. (2014). The role of Black fathers in the lives of children in south Africa: Child protection for Black South Africans is often a collective responsibility. *Child abuse & neglect*, *38*(6), 982-992.

Makusha, T., & Richter, L. (2015). Non-resident black fathers in South Africa. In J.L. Roopnarine (Ed.), *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development*, 30-33.

Makusha, T., Richter, L., Knight, L., Van Rooyen, H., & Bhana, D. (2013). "The Good and The Bad?" Childhood Experiences With Fathers And Their Influence On Women's Expectations And Men's Experiences Of Fathering In Rural Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa. *Fathering*, *11*(2), 138-158.

Manski, C. (2004). Social Learning from Private Experiences: The Dynamics of the Selection Problem. *Encyclopedia of Early Childhood Development*, *1*, 1-4.

Maree, K. (2010). *First steps in research* (10th ed.). Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik.

Marsiglio, W. (1991). Paternal engagement with minor children. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *53*, 973-986.

Marsiglio, W., & Cohan, M. (2000). Contextualizing father involvement and paternal influence: Sociological and qualitative themes. *Marriage and Family Review*, *29*, 75-95.

Marsiglio, W., Day, R.D., & Lamb, M.E. (2000). Exploring fatherhood diversity: Implications for conceptualizing father involvement. *Marriage and Family Review*, *29*, 269-293.

Matlakala, F. K., Makhubele, J.C., & Mashilo, M.W. (2018). Challenges Of Teenage Fathers Towards Fatherhood In Vaalbank, Mpumalanga Province. *Gender & Behaviour*, *16*(3), 12013 – 12020.

McClun, L. A., & Merrell, W. (1998). Relationship of perceived parenting styles, locus of control orientation, and self-concept among junior high age students. *Psychology in the Schools*, *35*(4), 381-390.

McKechnie, M. E. (2007). Unstructured Observation In L. Given (Ed.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods* (2nd ed., pp. 2-3). Thousand Oaks: SAGE.

McLean, K., & Syed, M. (Eds.). (2015). *The oxford handbook of identity development (Oxford library of psychology)*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2006). *Research in Education: Evidence-based Inquiry* (6th ed.). New York, United States of America: Pearson.

Meares, M. (2015). Interpretive research methods. In J. Bennett (Ed.), The SAGE encyclopedia of intercultural competence (pp. 561-563). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781483346267.n182

Mertens, D. M. (1998). *Research Methods in Education and Psychology*. London: SAGE.

Mkhize, N. (2006). African traditions and the social, economic and moral dimensions of fatherhood. In R. Morrell and L. Richter, (Eds.), *Baba: Men and fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 183-198). Cape Town: HSRC Press

Miles, M,. & Huberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: an expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Miller, I. W., Ryan, C. E., Keitner, G.I., Bishop, D. S., & Epstein, N. B. (2000). The McMaster Approach to Families: theory, assessment, treatment and research. *Journal of Family Therapy, 22*, 168–189.

Mills, A. J., Durepos, G., & Wiebe, E. (2010). *Encyclopedia of case study research (Vols. 1-0)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781412957397

Mitchell, K. S., Booth, A., King, V., & Teachman, J. (2009). Adolescents with Nonresident Fathers: Are Daughters More Disadvantaged than Sons?. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 71*(3),650-662.

Mohane, M. (2009). *South Africa - Family Life In Black Communities*. Retrieved from http://family.jrank.org/pages/1613/South-Africa-Family-Life-in-Black-Communities.html#ixzz0ImsA5nXf&C

Morman, M.T., & Floyd, K. (2002). A "changing culture of fatherhood": Effects on affectionate communication, closeness, and satisfaction in men's relationships with their fathers and their sons. *Western Journal of Communication, 66,* 395–411.

Morrell, R. (2006). Fathers, fatherhood and masculinity in South Africa. In: L. Richter & R. Morrell (Eds.), *Baba: Men and fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 13-25). Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.

Morrell, R., & Swart, S. (2012). A "changing culture of fatherhood": Effects on affectionate communication, closeness, and satisfaction in men's relationships with their fathers and their sons. *Western Journal of Communication*, *66*(4), 395-411.

Morrell, R., Posel, D., & Devey, R. (2008). Counting fathers in South Africa: Issues of definition, methodology and policy. *Social Dynamics*, *29*(2), 73-94.

Mosia, D. A. (2014). *Perceptions of the roles and responsibilities of caregivers in children's homes* (Master's thesis). University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa.

Mott, F. L., Kowaleski-Jones, L., & Mehaghan, E. G. (1997). Paternal absence and child behavior: Does a child's gender make a difference*? Journal of Marriage and the Family*, *59*(1), 103-118.

Mulhall, A. (2003). In the field: Notes on observation in qualitative research. *Methodological Issues In Nursing Research*, *41*(3), 306–313.

Mungai, C. (2015, June). *State of the World's Fathers: African men more likely to have children with more than one woman*. Mail & Guardian. Retrieved from http://mgafrica.com/article/2015-06-29-state-of-the-worlds-fathers

Murray, C. (1980). Migrant labour and changing family structure in the rural periphery of Southern Africa. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, *6*(2), 139-156.

Mutanda, N., & Odimegwu, C. (2019). Solitary living in south africa: What is driving the pattern and change? *Journal of Population Research*, *36*(2), 137-158. doi:10.1007/s12546-019-09222-z

Nduna, M. (2014). Growing up without a father and a pursuit for the right surname. *The Open Family Studies Journal*, *6*, 31–38.

Ngobeni, S. (2006). Representations of Fatherhood in Black US Film and how this relates to parenting in South Africa. In R. Morrell and L. Richter, (Eds.), *Baba: Men and fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 147-154). Cape Town: HSRC Press.

News24. (2013). *Only 33% of SA kids live with both parents*. News24. Retrieved from http:// http://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/News/Only-33-of-SA-kids-live-with-both-parents-20130311

Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Article Thematic Analysis: Striving to Meet the Trustworthiness Criteria. *International of Qualitative Methods, 16*, 1-13.

OECD (2009). Participation in higher education by father's job and education. OECD Factbook 2009. *Economic, Environmental and Social Statistics*, OECD Publishing: Paris.doi: https://doi.org/10.1787/factbook-2009-106-en

Okeke, C. O. (2018). Crises impacting South African men's participation in early socio- education development of children and possible useful interventions. *South African Journal of Psychology, 48*(4), 476 –487.

Okon, E. (2012). Towards defining the 'right to a family' for the African child. *African Human Rights Law Journal, 1*, 373-393.

Oláh, L. S., Richter, R., & Kotowska, I. E. (2014). The new roles of men and women and implications for families and societies. *Families and Societies Working Paper, 11*, 1-59.

Overholser, J.C. (1993). Elements of the Socratic Method: I. Systematic Questioning. *Psychotherapy, 30*(1), 67–74.

Padi, T., Nduna, M., Khunou, C., & Kholopane, P. (2014). Defining absent, unknown and undisclosed fathers in South Africa. *South African Review of Sociology*, *45*(2), 44-59, doi: 10.1080/21528586.2014.917879

Parke, M. (2003). Are married parents really better for children? What research says about the effects of family structure on child well-being. *Center for Law and Social Policy, 1*, 1-12.

Parke, R.D. (2008) Father Involvement. *Marriage & Family Review, 29*(2-3), 43-58, doi: 10.1300/J002v29n02_04

Parke, R.D., & Neville, B. (1995). Late-Time Fatherhood: Determinants and consequences of children and families, In J. Shapiro, M. Diamond, and M. Greenberg (Eds). *Becoming a father: Social, Emotional and Psychological Perspectives*, (pp.104-116), New York: Springer.

Pleck, J. H. (2010). Paternal involvement: Revised conceptualization and theoretical linkages with child outcomes. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), *The role of the father in child development* (5th ed., pp. 58–93). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2014). *Essentials of nursing research:Appraising evidence for nursing practice* (8th ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Pomerantz, E. M., Moorman, E. A., & Litwack, S. D. (2007). The How, Whom, and Why of Parents' Involvement in Children's Academic Lives: More Is Not Always Better. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(3), 373-410.

Ponterotto, J. G. (2005). Qualitative research in counselling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of Counselling Psychology, 52*(2), 126-136.

Posel, D., Rudwick, S., & Casale, D. (2011). Is marriage a dying institution in south africa? exploring changes in marriage in the context of ilobolo payments. *Agenda, 25*(1), 102-111. doi:10.1080/10130950.2011.575589

Rabe, M. (2019). The history of fatherhood in South Africa. In W. Van den Berg & T. Makusha, *State Of South Africa's Fathers* (pp. 19-26). Cape Town: Sonke Gender Justice & Human Sciences Research Council.

Rakabe, E. (2016). Prospects for revitalising township economies: from the fringes to the mainstream. A case study of Tembisa. *REDI3x3 Working paper, 16*, 1-34.

Raley, S., & Bianchi, S. (2006). Sons, daughters, and family processes: Does gender of children matter? *Annual Review of Sociology, 32*, 401-421.

Ratele, K., & Nduna, M. (2019). An overview of fatherhood in South Africa. In W. Van den Berg & T. Makusha, *State Of South Africa's Fathers* (pp. 39-48). Cape Town: Sonke Gender Justice & Human Sciences Research Council.

Ratele, K., Shefer, T., & Clowes, L. (2012). Talking South African fathers: A critical examination of men's constructions and experiences of fatherhood and fatherlessness. *South African Journal of Psychology, 42*(2), 553-563.

Reeves, S., Albert, M., Kuper, A., & Hodge, B. D. (2008). Qualitative search: Why use theories in qualitative research? *British Medical Journal, 337*(7670), 631-634.

Rick, P., & Stephen, G. (2009). FAMILIES FIRST: Keys to Successful Family Functioning Family Roles. *Virginia Cooperative Extension, 1*, 1-4.

Richardson, G., La Guardia, A., & Klay, P. (2018). Determining the roles of father absence and age at menarche in female psychosocial acceleration. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 39*(4), 437-446. doi:10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2018.03.009

Richter, L., & Morrell, R. (2006). Introduction. In L. Richter, & R. Morell (Eds.), *Baba: Men and Fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 1-12). Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.

Rodstad, W.L., Medinas, A.M., & Hurtig-Crosby, P.H. (2014). Fathers in the Dorm Room: The Unique Influence of Fathers and Mothers on Young Adult Functioning. *Fathering, 12*(1), 3-17.

Roman, N. V., Makwakwa, T., & Lacante, M. (2016). Perceptions of parenting styles in South Africa: The effects of gender and ethnicity. *Cogent Psychology, 3*, 1-12.

Roy, R. (1990). Chronic Pain And "Effective" Family Functioning: A Re-Examination Of The Mcmaster Model Of Family Functioning. *Contemporary Family Therapy, 12*(6), 489-503.

Ryan, C. E., Epstein, N. B., Keitner, G. I., Miller, I. W., & Bishop, D. S. (2005*). Evaluation and treating families: The McMaster approach*. New York, NY, US: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

SABC. (2015). Statistics show that many African fathers are absent. Retrieved from http://www.sabc.co.za/news/a/409fde0048cd0010811affa9ee5d8a7f/Statistics-show-that-many-African-fathers-are-absent-20150619

Sağkal, S. A., Özdemir, Y., & Koruklu, N.(2018). Direct and indirect effects of father-daughter relationship on adolescent girls' psychological outcomes: The role of basic psychological need satisfaction. *Journal of Adolescence, 68*, 32–39. doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2018.07.001

Saldana, J. (2009). *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Salami, I.A., & Okeke, C.I.O. (2018). 'Absent fathers' socio-economic status and perceptions of fatherhood as related to developmental challenges faced by children in South Africa. *South African Journal of Childhood Education, 8*(1), 1-7.

Salmon, C., Townsend, J., & Hehman, J. (2016). Casual sex and college students: Sex differences and the impact of father absence. *Evolutionary Psychological Science*, *2*(4), 254-261. doi:10.1007/s40806-016-0061-9

Saunders, B., Kitzinger, J., & Kitzinger, C. (2015). Participant Anonymity in the Internet Age: From Theory to Practice. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 12*(1), 125–137.

Schiller, N. (2008). Finding a Socratic Method for information literacy instruction. *College & Undergraduate Libraries, 15*(1-2), 39–56.

Schwandt, T. A. (2015). *The SAGE Dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Shwalb, D. W., & Shwalb, B. J. (2014). Father-hood in Brazil, Bangladesh, Russia, Japan, and Australia. *Online Readings in Psychol-ogy and Culture, 6*(3). doi: 10.9707/2307-0919.1125

Seltzer, J. A., & Bianchi, S. M. (1988). Children's Contact with Absent Parents. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 50*(3), 663-677.

Sefotho, M. M. (2014, April 4). *A researcher's dilemma: Philosophy in crafting dissertations and theses*. Paper presented at the Faculty of Education Research Support Sessions for PhD and Masters Students at the University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa.

Sharipo, D. N., Thomas, D., & Warschausky, S. (2014). Gender and Nurturance in Families of children with Neurodevelopmental Conditions. *Rehabilitation Psychology, 59*(2), 155-161.

Sharp, J. (1994). A world turned upside down: Households and differentiation in a South African bantustan in the 1980s. *African Studies, 53*(1), 71-88.

Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information, 22*(1), 63–75.

Sikweyiya, Y., Shai, N., Gibbs, A., Mahlangu, P., & Jewkes, R. (2017) Conceptualisations of fatherhood and socio-contextual dynamics influencing father involvement in informal settlements in Durban, South Africa. *Social Dynamics, 43*(1), 131-147. DOI:10.1080/02533952.2017.1348039

Silverman, D. (2001). *Interpreting qualitative data: methods for analysing talk, text and interaction* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

Smiler, P. (2008).I wanted to get to know her better'': Adolescent boys' dating motives, masculinity ideology, and sexual behaviour. *Journal of Adolescence, 31*, 17–32.

Slattery, J. (2013). Mom and Dad Fill Different Roles. Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com/roomfordebate/2013/06/03/what-are-fathers-for/mom-and-dad-fill-different-roles

Sofaer, S. (1999). Qualitative methods: What are they and why use them? *Health Services Research*, 34(5), 1101-1118.

Sooryamoorthy, R., & Makhoba, M. (2016). The Family In Transition: A View From South Africa. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 47*(3), 309-321.

South Africa History Archives. (2018). Tembisa community oral history and photographic project (2010 - 2011). Retrieved from http://www.saha.org.za/projects/tembisa_oral_history_photography_project.htm

Spjeldnaes, I. O., Moland, K. M., Harris, J., & Sam, D. L. (2011). Being Man Enough: Fatherhood Experiences and Expectations Among Teenage Boys In South Africa. *Fathering, 9*, 3-21.

Spiegel, A. (1987). Dispersing dependants: A response to the exigencies of labour migration in rural Transkei. In J. Eades (Ed.), *Migrants, workers, and the social order* (pp. 113-129). London, England: Tavistock.

Stake, R. E. (2006). *Multiple Case Study Analysis*. New York: Guilford Press.

Statista. (2018). Youth unemployment rate in South Africa in 2018. Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/statistics/813010/youth-unemployment-rate-in-south-africa/

Statistics South Africa. (2010). *Social profile of South Africa, 2002–2009*. Pretoria, South Africa: Statistics South Africa.

Statistics South Africa. (2018). *Mbalo*. Pretoria, South Africa: Statistics South Africa

Statistics South Africa. (2018). *Recorded live births, 2017*. Retrieved from http://www.statssa.gov.za/?p=11478

Statistics South Africa. (2018). *How do women fare in the South African labour Market.* Pretoria, South Africa: Statistics South Africa

Statistics South Africa. (2018). *Tembisa*. Retrieved from http://www.statssa.gov.za/?page_id=4286&id=11262

Statistics South Africa. (2019). Five facts about poverty in South Africa. Retrieved from http://www.statssa.gov.za/?p=12075

Stavraki, G. (2014*). Going reflective: Making sense of the process of designing a case study research under the interpretive paradigm*. SAGE Research Methods Cases. doi:10.4135/97814462730501349653l

Stenson, J. B. (2004). *Father, the Family Protector*. New York: Scepter.

Stevenson, A. & Waite, M. (Eds.) (2011). *The Concise Oxford English Dictionary.* 12th Edition. Oxford.

Streb, C. (2010). *Exploratory case study. In A. J. MillsG. Durepos & E. Wiebe (Eds.), Encyclopedia of case study research* (pp. 373-374). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781412957397.n139

Sullivan, M. L. (1989). Absent Fathers in the Inner City. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 501*, 48-58.

Taliep, N., Ismail, G., & Titi, N. (2018). Reflections on parenting practices that impact childrearing in a low-income community. *Child Abuse Research: A South African Journal, 19*(2), 1-13.

Tamis-LeMonda, C. S., & Cabrera, N. (1999). Perspectives on Father Involvement: Research and Policy. *Social Policy Report Society for Research in Child Development, 13*(2), 1-32.

Tellis, W. M. (1997). Application of a Case Study Methodology. *The Qualitative Report, 3*(3), 1-19. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol3/iss3/1

Terre Blanche, M., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (2006). *Research in Practice*. Cape Town: University Of Cape Town Press.

Terry, G., Hayfield, N., Clarke, V. & Braun, V. (2017). Thematic analysis. In C. Willig & W. Rogers *The SAGE Handbook of qualitative research in psychology* (pp. 17-36). 55 City Road, London: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781526405555.n2

Tessier, S., Gosselin, J., Young, M., & Thomassin, K. (2019). A literature review of cultural stereotypes associated with motherhood and fatherhood. *Marriage & Family Review, 55*(4), 299.

Theron, L.C., Theron, M. C., & Malindi, M. J. (2012). Toward an African Definition of Resilience: A Rural South African Community's View of Resilient Basotho Youth. *Journal of Black Psychology. 39*, 63-87. doi.org/10.1177/0095798412454675

Thobejane, T. D., Mulaudzi, T. P., & Zitha, R. (2017). Gender and Behaviour - Factors leading to "blesser-blessee" relationships amongst female students: the case of a rural university in Thulamela municipality, Limpopo province, South Africa. *Gender and Behaviour, 15*(2), 8716-8731.

Thomas, D. R. (2006). A General Inductive Approach for Analyzing Qualitative Evaluation Data. *American Journal of Evaluation, 27*(2), 237-246. doi:10.1177/1098214005283748

Thomas, D. R. (2017). Feedback from research participants: are member checks useful in qualitative research?, *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 14*(1), 23-41.doi 10.1080/14780887.2016.1219435

Thomson, E., Hanson, T. L., & McLanahan, S. S. (1994). Family Structure and Child Well-Being: Economic Resources vs. Parental Behaviors. *Social Forces, 73*, 221–242, doi.org/10.1093/sf/73.1.221

Thupayagale-Tshweneagae, G., Mgutshini, T., & Nkosi, Z. Z. (2012). Where is my daddy? An exploration of the impact of absentee fathers on the lives of young people in Botswana. *African Development, 37*(3), 115-126.

Townsend, N. (2002). Cultural contexts of father involvement. In C.S. Tamis-LeMonda & N.

Townsend, S., Cox, S. M., & Li, L. C. (2010). Qualitative Research Ethics: Enhancing Evidence-Based Practice in Physical Therapy. *Physical Therapy, 90*(4), 615-628.

Trochim, W., Donnelly, J., & Arora, K. (2016). *Research Methods: The Essential Knowledge Base*. United States: Cengage Learning.

Tshwane University of Technology. (2012). *Research Paradigms*. Retrieved from http://www.slideshare.net/eLearnCenter/research-methods-uoc-2013.

United Nations Population Information, (2001). *The Family, its Roles, Composition and Structure*. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/popin/index.html

Updegraff, K.A., McHale, S.M., & Crouter, A.C. (1996). Gender Roles in Marriage: What Do They Mean for Girls‘ and Boys‘ School Achievement? *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 25*(1), 73-88.

Vaughn, P., & Turner, C. (2016) Decoding via Coding: Analyzing Qualitative Text Data Through Thematic Coding and Survey Methodologies. *Journal of Library Administration, 56*(1), 41-51.doi 10.1080/01930826.2015.1105035

Van Holland De Graaf, J., Hoogenboom, M. J. M., de Roos, S., & Bucx, F. (2018). Socio-demographic correlates of fathers' and mothers’ parenting behaviors. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 27*(7).

Wahyuni, D. (2012). Research Design Maze: Understanding Paradigms, Cases, Methods and Methodologies. *Journal of Applied Management Accounting Research, 10*(1), 69-80.

Walsh, F. (2003). *Normal family processes: Growing diversity and complexity*. (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Walsh, F. (2016) Family resilience: A developmental systems framework. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 13*(3), 313-324. doi:10.1080/17405629.2016.1154035

Wang, G., Buffalo, M. D., Bakr, S., & Spataro, L. (2004). The effect of female-headed households on educational attainment: A comparative analysis of white and black respondents. *Journal of Applied Social Science, 21*, 135-150.

Weiler, D.M. (2000). *Healthy family functioning with a child with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder*, The University of Iowa.

Wigginton, B., & Lee, C. (2014). But I Am Not One to Judge Her Actions": Thematic and Discursive Approaches to University Students' Responses to Women Who Smoke While Pregnant. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *11*(1), 265–276.

Willig, C. (2008). *Introducing qualitative research in psychology: Adventures in theory and method (2nd ed.).* New York: Open University Press.

Willig, C., & Rogers, W. (2017). *The SAGE Handbook of qualitative research in psychology*. London: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781526405555

Wilson, K. R., & Prior, M. R. (2011). Father involvement and child well-being. *Journal of Paediatrics and Child Health*, *47*, 405–407.

Yeager, D. (2017). Social and emotional learning programs for adolescents. *Future of Children*, *27*(1), 73-94.

Yin, R. K. (1984). *Case study research: design and methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: design and methods* (5th ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE.

Zainal, Z. (2007). Case study as a research method. *Journal Kemanusiaan bil*, *9*, 2-6.

Zucker, D. M. (2009). How to Do Case Study Research. *School of Nursing Faculty Publication Series*, *2*, 1-16.

ANNEXURE A - GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL

GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

8/4/4/1/2

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	**27 March 2017**
Validity of Research Approval:	**06 February 2017 – 29 September 2017** **2017/40**
Name of Researcher:	**Reetsang P.T**
Address of Researcher:	**P O Box 40272**
	Gaborone
	Botswana
Telephone Number:	**000763900833 076 279 1951 00267 71878676**
Email address:	**teboreetsang@gmail.com**
Research Topic:	**Adolescent perspectives of father involvement in semi urban families**
Number and type of schools:	**One Secondary School**
District/s/HO	**Johannesburg East**

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

27/03/2017

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management
7th Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001
Tel: (011) 355 0488
Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

1. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.*
2. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.*
3. *A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.*
4. *A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.*
5. *The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.*
6. *Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.*
7. *Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year. If incomplete, an amended Research Approval letter may be requested to conduct research in the following year.*
8. *Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.*
9. *It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.*
10. *The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.*
11. *The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.*
12. *On completion of the study the researcher/s must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.*
13. *The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.*
14. *Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.*

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

.....

Ms Faith Tshabalala
CES: Education Research and Knowledge Management

DATE: 27/03/2017

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management
7th Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001
Tel: (011) 355 0488
Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

ANNEXURE B - INVITATION AND SIGNED EXAMPLE FOR RESEARCH AND INVITATION FOR RESEARCH FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION INTERVIEW

Invitation for Research

1 August 2017

Dear Parent

Who am I?
My name is Phetolo Reetsang, and I am an Educational Psychology student at the University of Pretoria. I am doing some research which might help me better understand adolescent perspectives on father involvement by children coming from semi urban families. In my research I will talk to both girls and boys and ask them a number of questions.

What is Research?
Research studies help us learn new things. First, we ask a question, then we try to find the answer by either establishing facts or reaching new conclusions.

It is important to know that whenever researchers study children, we talk to the parents first and ask them for their permission. So after you have heard more about the study, and if you agree, then the next thing I will do is ask you for your consent and your child to participate in the research study.

Purpose of my study
I want to see what your child's perception of father involvement is. Father involvement in the African context has not received much attention and seems to have a different meaning than to the international definition. Absent fathers are a reality in the daily lives of many learners in South Africa, the result of which has implications for children in both the short and the long term. Therefore, I want to find out what is your child's opinion about their father's involvement with regards to the nurturance and support they receive.

What would happen if you join this research?
Once you have read this letter, take time to talk to your child about taking part in this research study. If you and your child decide to take part in the study, you will be required to sign yourselves up on the invitation letter below, to take part. You will be given a week, from the day you received this letter, to return it to the school signed with all your contact information filled out. I will then contact you to set a date at your preferred destination (your home, my office, any other venue), to have a discussion about your child's participation in the study for 10 minutes and answer any questions you may have.

Once you have given your consent (Permission for your child to take part in the study), I will have an interview with your child for 45 minutes. The interview is to understand their feelings and views about what they think father involvement is. This interview can also happen at your home so that you do not have to incur transport costs. I want you to know that your child does not have to answer any question or take part in the discussion if they don't wish to do so. They do not have to give me any reason for not responding to any question, or for refusing to take part in the interview.

The interview will just involve me and your child. I will ask them questions that help me understand his/her feelings and thoughts about what father involvement entails. In particular, we will talk about how he/she defines a father, who plays the father figure in his/her life and if he/she considers a father's presence important for their future.

The interview will be audiotaped so that I can accurately reflect on what is discussed. The tapes will only be reviewed by members of the research team who will transcribe and analyse them. They will be safely stored at the University of Pretoria where only research members can have access to them. I will contact you and/or your child again for a second interview to verify information collected on the first interview.

Potential Benefits?
The results of this study will indirectly benefit your child because teachers and psychologists will know how to help children earlier. This study will also help your family devise better ways to cope with the absence of a father. I will not pay you for your time, however if we meet at my office or any other location other than your home, I will cover your transport or your child's transport costs.

Risks
During the interview with your child, there may be some things they don't want to talk about. They may feel they cause some emotions and they can't deal with them. If you feel your child wants to talk more about these feelings or about the father, I will arrange someone to see them and help them through these feelings.

Confidentiality
All the information that I will get from you will remain confidential and I will remove identifying information from the data I collected. No one will be able to know your child's

answers. However, if you or your child tell me something that I judge to be concerning or indicates unsafety, I will have to act professionally and seek appropriate resources. The data I get from you and your family will be published and presented at conferences. I will summarize the information so that it will not be possible to identify you and your family. I will store the data in locked files in a locked research office at University of Pretoria. Only researchers involved in this study will have access to the data.

If you want to be in the research, please fill your details below. This information will allow me to contact you for our first interview.

Name of Participant _____

(Parent)

Name of Participant _____

(Adolescent)

Physical Address _____

Mobile phone _____

Alternative number _____

Researcher

Phetolo Reetsang

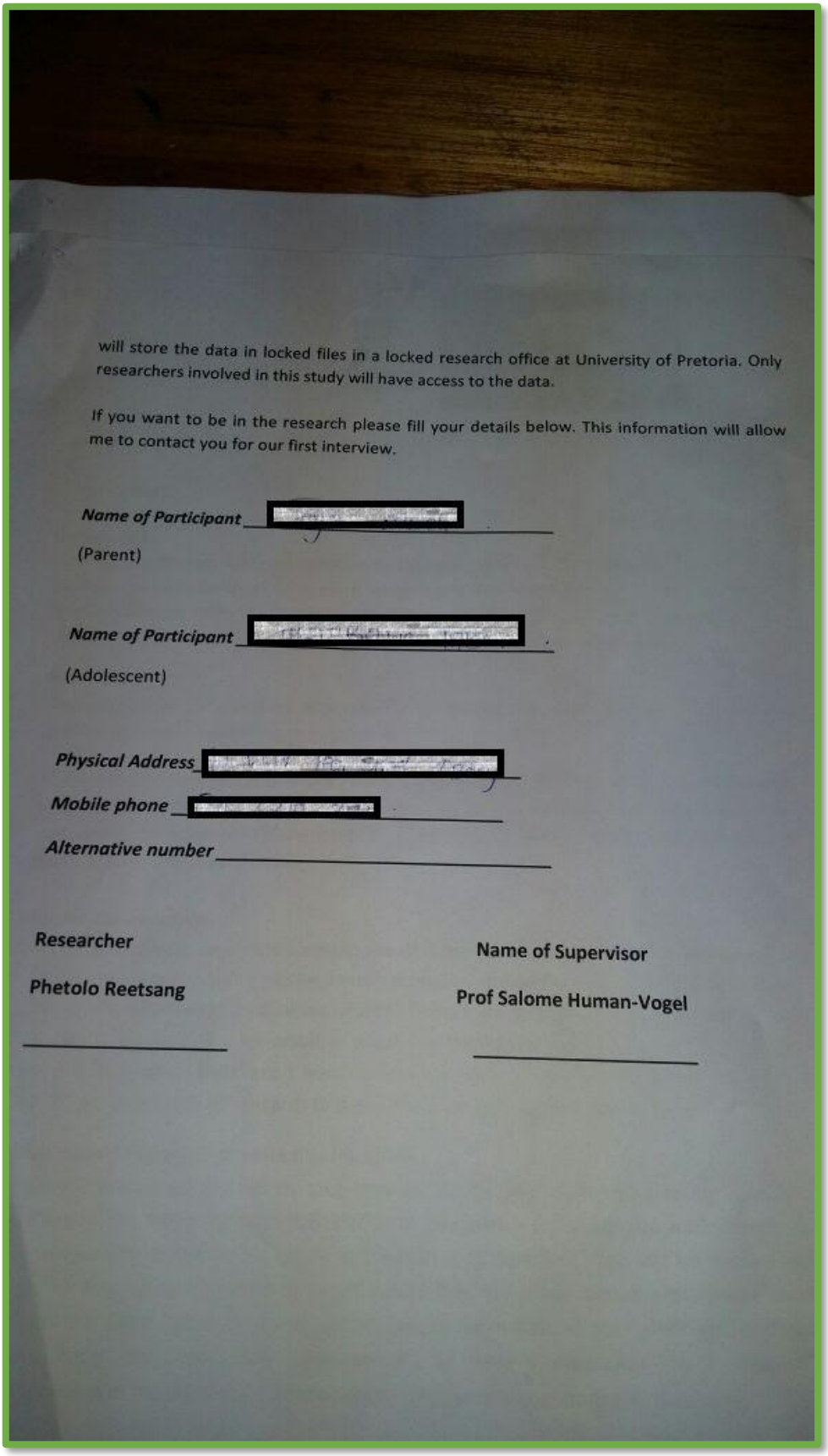
_____

Name of Supervisor

Prof Salome Human-Vogel

_____

Example of signed Invite for Research



will store the data in locked files in a locked research office at University of Pretoria. Only researchers involved in this study will have access to the data.

If you want to be in the research please fill your details below. This information will allow me to contact you for our first interview.

Name of Participant [redacted]

(Parent)

Name of Participant [redacted]

(Adolescent)

Physical Address [redacted]

Mobile phone [redacted]

Alternative number _____

Researcher

Phetolo Reetsang

_____

Name of Supervisor

Prof Salome Human-Vogel

_____

Research Invite for Focus group discussion

20 July 2018

Dear Parent

Who am I?

My name is Phetolo Reetsang, and I am an Educational Psychology student at the University of Pretoria. I am doing some research which might help me understand better adolescent perspectives of father involvement who come from semi-urban families. In my study, I have already spoken to some boys and girls individually and now the next step in my study is that of talking to some more boys and girls in a group setting. Your child had shown interest to take part in my study during the individual interviews stage but never got the opportunity to participate therefore this is a follow up invite for them to take part in a focus group discussion interview. I have met with your child and they still express their interest to participate in the focus group discussion interview.

Consent?

It is important to know that every time researchers study children, we talk to the parents and ask them for their permission. So if you agree for your child to take part in the study, then I will ask you for your consent (Permission).

Purpose of my study

I want to see what your child's perception of father involvement is. Father involvement in the African context has not received much attention and seems to have a different meaning than to the international definition. Absent fathers is a reality in the daily lives of many learners in South Africa, the result of which has implications for your child in both the short and the long term. Therefore, I want to find out what is your child's opinion about their father's involvement with regards to the nurturance and support they receive.

What would happen if my child joins this research?

As already mentioned your child expressed their interest to take part in the study. If you agree for your child to take part in the study, you will be required to sign them up on the invitation letter. You will be given 2 days, from the day you received this letter, to return it to the school indicating your response to the invitation along with all your contact information filled out. There will be another letter attached to this one where you are required to sign to show that you give permission for your child to take part in the study. You are asked to not sign and send back the second letter yet before I contact you telephonically to discuss your child's

involvement in the study and you giving permission for their participation. Once you give your permission telephonically and sign the second letter, send it back to school.

Only after you have given your consent (Permission for your child to take part in the study), will I then include your child in a focus group discussion interview where they will share their experiences and opinions along with others. The focus group discussion interview will be for an hour. The aim of the discussion interview is to understand the participant's feelings and views about what they think father involvement is. This discussion interview will happen at school in the afternoon after classes. I want you to know that your child does not have to answer any question or take part in the discussion if they don't wish to do so anymore. They do not have to give me any reason for not responding to any question, or for refusing to take part in the focus group discussion.

The focus group discussion interview will just involve me and the other participants. I will ask them questions that help me understand their feelings and thoughts about what father involvement entails. In particular, we will talk about how they define a father, who plays the father figure in their life and if they consider a father's presence important for a child's future.

The interview will be audio taped so that I can accurately reflect on what is discussed. The tapes will only be reviewed by members of the research team who will transcribe and analyse them. They will be safely stored at the University of Pretoria where only research members can have access to them.

Potential Benefits?
The results of this study will indirectly benefit your child because teachers and psychologists will know how to help children earlier. I will not pay you for your time, however since the focus group discussion will be after school, I will cover your child's transport costs if they miss their transportation.

Risks
During the focus group discussion with your child, there may be some things they don't want to talk about. They may feel they cause some emotions and they can't deal with them. If you feel your child wants to talk more about these feelings or about the father, I will arrange someone to see and help them through these feelings.

Confidentiality
All the information that I will get from you and your child will remain confidential and I will remove identifying information from the data I collected. No one will be able to know your child's answers. However, if you, or your child tell me something that I judge to be concerning or indicates unsafety, I will have to act professionally and seek appropriate resources. The data I get from your child will be published and presented at conferences. I will summarize the information so that it will not be possible to identify your child. I will store the data in locked files in a locked research office at University of Pretoria. Only researchers involved in this study will have access to the data.

If you agree with your child to be in the research, please indicate your choice and fill your details below. This information will allow me to contact you to further explain the study and get permission for your child to take part.

Interest for my child to take part in the study:

Interested

Not Interested

Name of Parent:

_____

***Name of Participant*(Adolescent):**

_____

Mobile phone:

_____

Alternative number

_____

Researcher

Phetolo Reetsang

Name of Supervisor

Prof Salome Human-Vogel

ANNEXURE C – RESEARCH CONSENT AND ASSENT FORMS

Research Consent Form

I, _____ agree for my child to participate in research titled, "Adolescent perspectives of father involvement in semi-urban families" which is being conducted by Phetolo Reetsang, currently enrolled at the University of Pretoria as a Master's Student registered in the Department of Educational Psychology. I understand that this participation is entirely voluntary. I can withdraw consent at any time without penalty and have the results of the participation (up to the date of withdrawing) to the extent that it cannot be identified as my child's, returned to me, removed from the research records or destroyed.

I fully understand the following conditions of the research:

- The purpose of this research is to investigate father involvement from an African context.
- The benefits that one may expect from the research are the development of intervention strategies by teachers and psychologists for families and their children where a father may not be involved.
- The research procedure will include in-depth interviews with my child.
- No discomfort, risks or stress, are foreseen and no physical or psychological harm will be imposed on my child. Should there be any distress to my child, appropriate assistance will be given.
- The results of the participation will be confidential and will not be released in any individually identifiable form without the prior consent of myself. The interviews will be audiotaped. Access to the tapes will be restricted to the research team directly involved with the research project. The tape will be stored in a secure area. The

audiotape will be transcribed and the words from the interview may be quoted. If so, a pseudonym or number will be used to ensure that my child cannot be identified in any way.

- The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the research, and can be reached by phone at 0762791951

Please sign both copies of this form. Keep one and return the other to the researcher.

Signature of Researcher _____ Date _____

Signature of Participant _____ Date _____

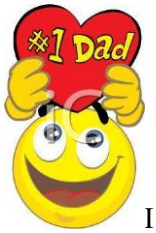
UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Education

Child Assent to Participate in a Research Study

Dear Participant

-  I am doing a study to learn: "Adolescent perspectives of father involvement in semi urban families".

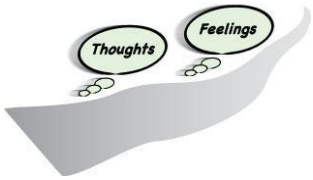
-  I am asking you to help because I don't know very much about what father involvement in semi urban families is like.

-  If you agree to be in my study, I will ask you questions about what you think a father is and does, and if you think a father is important for your future.

-  What I learn in this research may help other children understand what father involvement is.

-  It's possible that you will feel uncomfortable, angry, embarrassed or confused. Someone will help you with these feelings.

-  You may ask me questions at any time and you may ask to skip a question, or to stop at any time.

- 

The questions I ask are only about what you think. There are no right or wrong answers because this is not a test.

If you sign this paper, it means you have read / have been told about my study and you want to be in it. If you don't want to be in the study, don't sign the paper. Being in the study is up to you, and no one will be upset if you don't sign the paper, or if you change your mind later.

Child's Signature _____ Date _____

Researcher's Signature _____ Date _____

ANNEXURE D – TRANSCRIPTIONS

Please note that this is just a sample of the analysed field notes made during individual interviews. The complete set of field notes is included on the compact disc (CD) attached to the last page of the mini-dissertation.

[Background information and activity have already been completed]

PARTICIPANT 1 – SEPEDI

PHETOLO: *Kana* [by the way]what Grade are you in, nine?

[By the way, what grade are you in, nine?]

PARTICIPANT 1: *Ja.*

PHETOLO: Can you sing?

PARTICIPANT 1: *[Laughs]*

PHETOLO: A little bit?

PARTICIPANT 1: *Ja.*

PHETOLO: Who is your favourite artists?

PARICIPANT 1: Nadia Nakai.

PHETOLO: Aaaa! Okay. Who else?

PARTICIPANT 1: Cassper Nyovest

PHETOLO: So you like that…

PARTICIPANT 1: Hip-hop

PHETOLO: … that "Tree"? What is it called?

PARTICIPANT 1: Family Tree.

PHETOLO: Family Tree stable. Okay. Do you know the lyrics of some of the songs?

PARTICIPANT 1: *Ja*, I do.

[Background information and activity have already been completed]

PARTICIPANT 2 – ISIZULU

PHETOLO: Now I am going to start asking your questions. I want you to tell me about a typical day in your life, like how is your life like?

PARTICIPANT 2: My life is good.

PHETOLO: Okay. Give me your typical day; when you wake up, what is it like, what happens, who says what, who does what, you know. I just want to have a picture of how your life is like.

PARTICIPANT 2: My mother is a father and mother. I don't want to notice like bad things. My mother plays a good role of being a father. I don't notice anything from my mother. My life is great.

PHETOLO: Your life is great? So when you say your mom pays a good role of a father, what is a father's role that she plays?

PARTICIPANT 2: My mother tells me things that boys do. Ever since I was here I don't have a picture of my dad.

PHETOLO: You don't? Ever since you were born?

PARTICIPANT 2: *Ja*. That's all.

PHETOLO: Fine. Okay; I want you to tell me the members of your family when you were growing up, from when you were still a baby.

PARTICIPANT 1: I used to stay with my mom and sister in the Eastern Cape until ….

PHETOLO: They your … other sister here?

PARTICIPANT 2: *Ja*. And until my sister … I think my sister was here when I was doing Grade 8 until now. I just found out that my brother is living in Pretoria – from my mother's side; and that's all.

PHETOLO: Do you know how old your brother is?

PARTICIPANT 2: He's 26 or 27.

PHETOLO: How did you find out?

PARTICIPANT 2: My father told me.

ANNEXURE E - INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

Interview schedule for Learners

Introduction

My name is Phetolo Reetsang, and I am a student doing Educational Psychology at the University of Pretoria. As part of my study, I have to do research, which is about finding answers to certain problems. One problem that I want to understand better, is how teenagers understand father involvement pertaining to their own lives. The reason why I asked you to participate in my study, is because your father does or does not live with you and your family. If it is okay with you, I would like to ask you some questions about how you feel about it, how you feel about your father, and how life generally is when a father is or is not involved.

It is important that you understand that you do not have to answer all my questions, and that you can tell me when you feel uncomfortable. After we have finished with the interview, we can go over what you said and you can add or change things if you want. I would like to write up the information for this interview in a book, that my supervisor and other people will examine, but they will not know who you are. I will use a different name to refer to you so that your identity will remain private.

"This is a tape recorder. The reason for this is to help me remember everything that you say today. Is it ok with you if I record our conversation?"

1) Draw a picture / use clay to show what your father means to you.
2) Tell me about a typical day in your life.
3) Who were the members of your family when you were growing up?

   Prompt? Who has the authoritative role in the family?

   Prompt? What sort of things do they do that makes you to believe they hold an authoritative role?

   Prompt? Who are you able to go to when you have problems?

4) What is a father?

   Prompt? I was wondering, what does it mean to have a “father” according to you?

   Prompt? How does having a “father” affect you?

   Prompt? Do you think a father’s presence is important for your future?

   Prompt? Does a father have to live in the same house as you to be involved in your upbringing?

5) If your father was alive/ present, what sort of special things do you think you would do together? Tell me about it.

6) What is so special about fathers when compared to mothers?

   Prompt? Does your mother determine what kind of relationship you have with your father?

7) What kinds of support do you think a father provides for their child?

   Prompt? What are the kinds of things that you can talk to your father about?

   Prompt? What are the kinds of things that you cannot talk to your father about?

   Prompt? Is that kind of support the same for male and female children?

8) With all that we have talked about, what do you think father involvement is?

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

Focus group discussion interview schedule for Learners

Introduction

My name is Phetolo Reetsang, and I am a student doing Educational Psychology at the University of Pretoria. As part of my studies, I have to do research, which is about finding answers to certain problems. One problem that I want to understand better, is how teenagers understand father involvement pertaining to their own lives. The reason why I asked you to participate in my study, is because your father does not live with you and your family. If it is okay with you, I would like to ask you some questions about how you feel about it, how you feel about your father, and how life generally is when a father is not involved.

It is important that you understand that you do not have to answer all my questions, and that you can tell me when you feel uncomfortable. Each participant's privacy is important and we need to respect it, therefore no one should reveal the identities of other participants or indicate who made certain comments in the discussion interview. I would like to write up the information for this discussion interview in a book, that my supervisor and other people will examine, but they will not know who you are. I will use different names to refer to you so that your identities will remain private.

"This is a tape recorder. The reason for this is to help me remember everything that you say today. Is it ok with you if I record our discussion?"

1) Can you each tell me a little about yourselves and your families?

   Prompt? How does your day start and end?

   Prompt? What do you enjoy doing?

   Prompt? Who does what in the home?

2) I am very curious about your families and who are your family members. Please tell me a little bit about them.

   Prompt? Who were the members of your family when you were each growing up?

   Prompt? Who usually has the authoritative role in your families?

Prompt? What sort of things do they do that make you to believe they hold an authoritative role?

Prompt? In your families, who makes all the decisions?

Prompt? Is there a reason why they are the ones who make the decisions?

Prompt? In each of your families, who are you able to go to when you have problems?

3) This study is about fathers and what it means when they are not in our lives. I would like you to share what you think about fathers and children?

Prompt? Can you tell me what is a father?

Prompt? Are you a father only if you biologically related to a child?

Prompt? How does a child feel and act when they have a father?

Prompt? What does a father influence in a child's life?

Prompt? What parts of a child's life does a father affect?

Prompt? How does a father's presence in their child's life affect their future?

4) In our community, we know that some fathers are not present in their children's lives therefore I was wondering, what is the difference between a life of a child with a present father and a life of a child with an absent father?

Prompt? What does a father contribute in the home?

Prompt? If a father is absent, what sort of things get affected in the home?

Prompt? Does a father have to live in the same house as you to be involved in your upbringing?

5) Do you each have a special memory of your father? Please tell me about it.

Prompt? What sort of activities do you do together?

Prompt? What is so special about it?

6) What is so special about fathers when compared to mothers?

Prompt? Do mothers determine what kind of relationship children have with their fathers?

7) What kinds of support do you think fathers provide for their child?

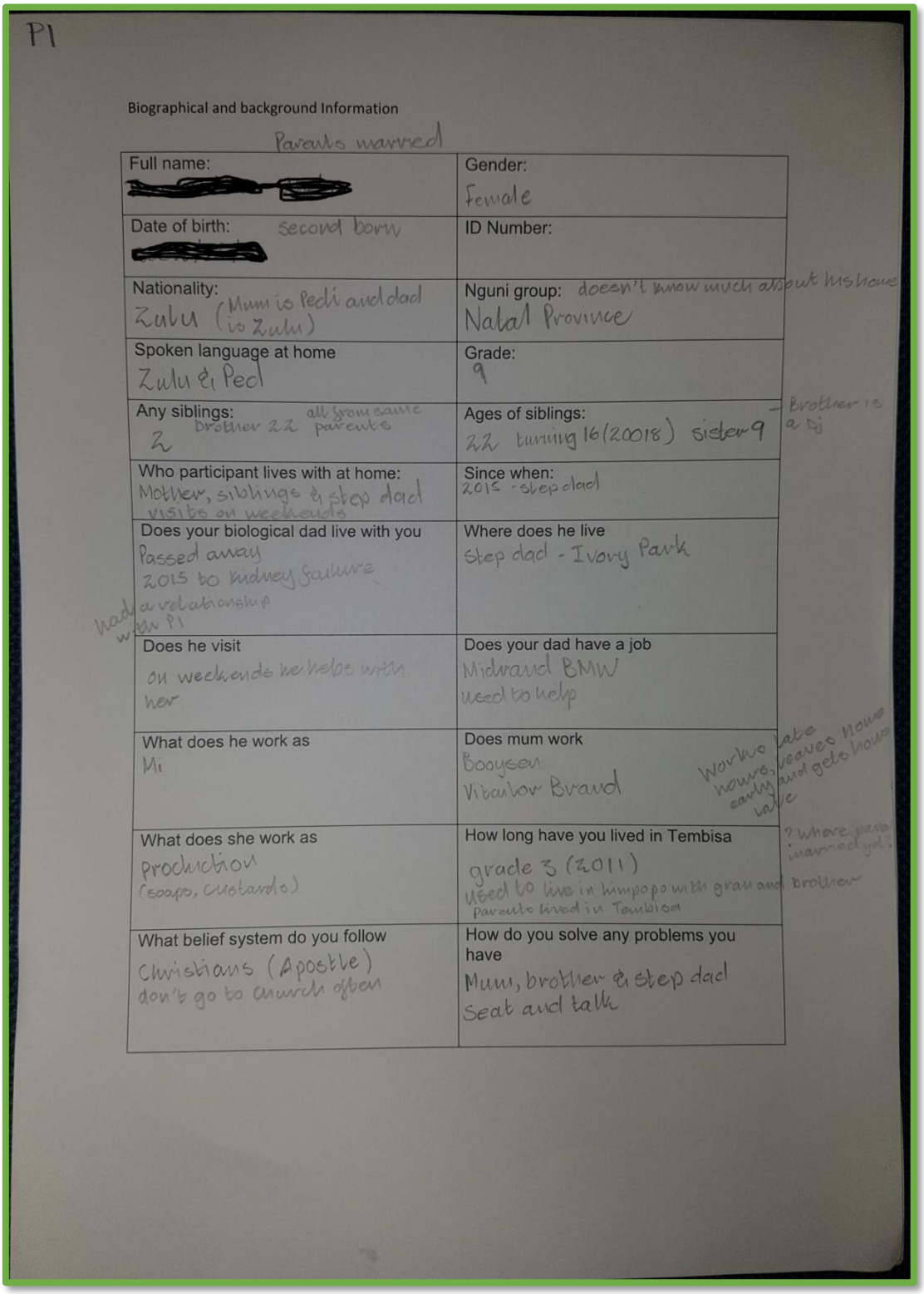
Prompt? What are the kinds of things can children talk to their fathers about?

Prompt? What are the kinds of things that children cannot talk to their fathers about?

Prompt? Is that kind of support and relationship the same for male and female children with their fathers?

8) With all that we have talked about, what do you think father involvement is?

ANNEXURE F - EXAMPLE OF BACKGROUND INFORMATION FORM



P1

Biographical and background Information

Parents married

Full name: [redacted]	Gender: Female
Date of birth: [redacted] second born	ID Number:
Nationality: Zulu (Mum is Pedi and dad is Zulu)	Nguni group: doesn't know much about his home Natal Province
Spoken language at home: Zulu & Pedi	Grade: 9
Any siblings: 2 brother 22 all from same parents	Ages of siblings: 22 turning 16 (2018) sister 9 — Brother is a DJ
Who participant lives with at home: Mother, siblings & step dad visits on weekends	Since when: 2015 - step dad
Does your biological dad live with you: Passed away 2015 to kidney failure had a relationship with P1	Where does he live: Step dad - Ivory Park
Does he visit: on weekends he helps with her	Does your dad have a job: Midrand BMW used to help
What does he work as: Mi	Does mum work: Booysen Vitalab Braud — Works late hours, leaves home early and gets home late
What does she work as: Production (soaps, custards)	How long have you lived in Tembisa: grade 3 (2011) used to live in Limpopo with gran and brother parents lived in Tembisa — ? where parents married yet?
What belief system do you follow: Christians (Apostle) don't go to church often	How do you solve any problems you have: Mum, brother & step dad Seat and talk

ANNEXURE G - OBSERVATION AND REFLECTIVE NOTES

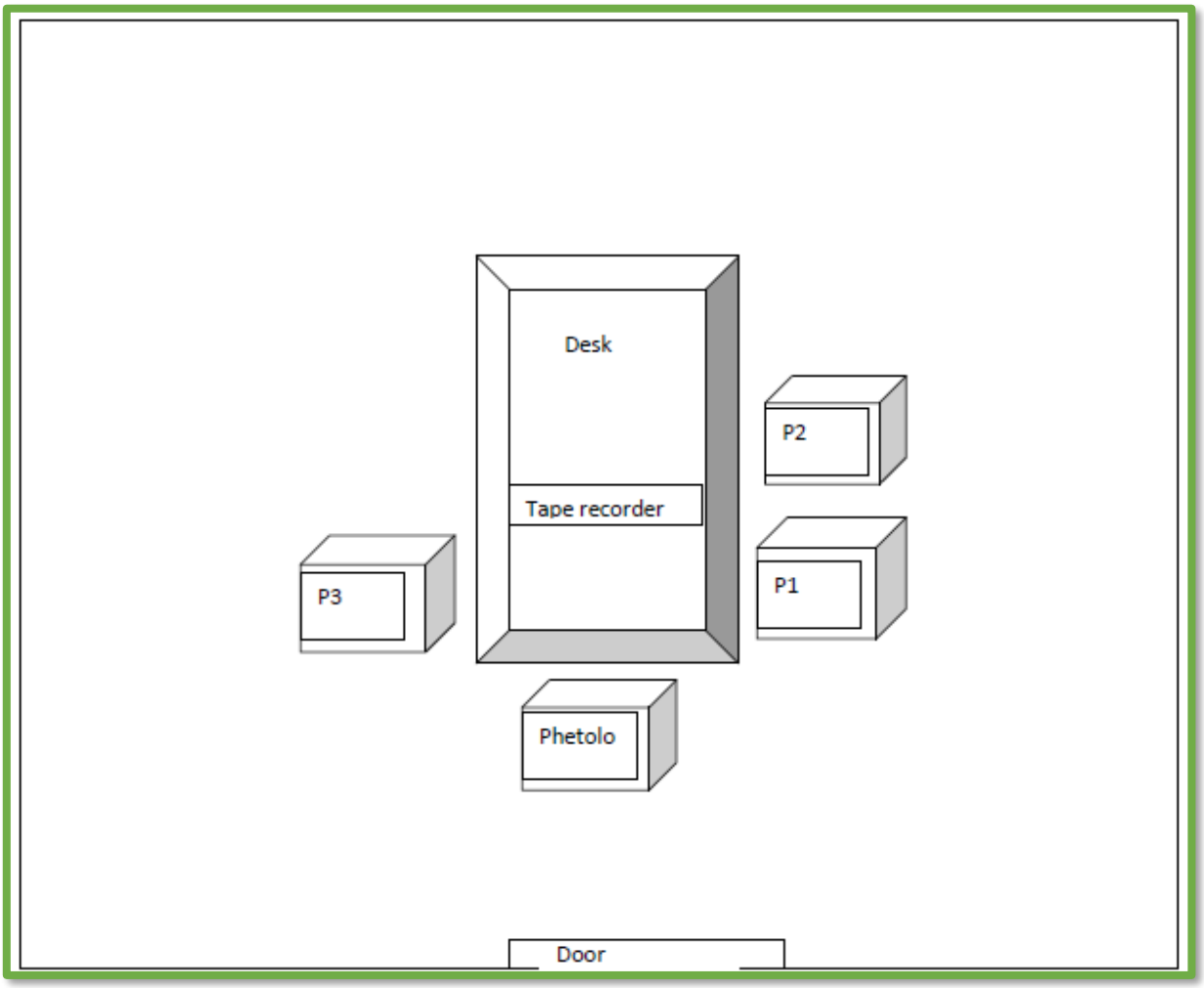
PARTICIPANT 1	
OBSERVATIONS	**REFLECTIVE NOTES**
Date: 27 August 2017 (Saturday 10:00)	
-The house is paved with a secure gate. Looks like an RDP house that has been recently renovated. The yard is having a wall bout around it and so are some yards on the same street.	* This area seems to be the much quieter area in Tembisa. This is where the municipality built some of the houses and sold them to the owners. They also provide services like water and electricity. This area has a lot of formal housing which suggests residents here receive a considerable household income a year. The standard of living here is much better than the rest of the parts in Tembisa.
-They stay in Ebony park. Houses in the neighbourhood are similar to theirs. It's quiet and there is not a lot of movement on the street.	
-Mom is the one who opens for me	* Because she was the one who was closest or because she is the head of the household. I expected the dad to be the one to come see who was at the gate for security reasons. It could also however be the issue that they were expecting me.
-She is welcoming and can speak in English and Pedi.	She has had some formal education. Hence having the job she has.
-The house has a lounge, kitchen, bathroom and three bedrooms.	Formal housing.
-The way P1 responds to her mother's calling and she says "mama" instead of "hee" or "huh" or "yes".	Parents have instilled the African culture in terms of respect towards adults

-P1 has her own bedroom with a wardrobe and a double bed and cushions along with a big teddy bear.	Each member has their privacy and space. Even though P1's father passed away their standard of living did not deteriorate.
-P1 lights up and values her brother's opinion of her. She respects him and wants to make him proud.	*She seems to fear him and at the same time give him that respect of an older male in the family. He plays the authoritarian and guidance giver role for her.
-Talk about her biological dad is a sensitive topic. She tried to hold back her tears but the more she tried the more intense the emotions got.	She holds her father dear to her and it is still a painful thought for her. Her might have been close with her father.
-Mom was busy cleaning outside and inside the house.	Seems everyone have roles they play in the home. She is often seem in most homes
-Dad was making himself breakfast as mom was busy cleaning. -Dad encouraged me to continue and study further with my studies	*The dad is friendly and seems domesticated and liberal in what a man's and woman's work entails. *He values education and women doing well in their careers. He seems to be educated and holding a well-paying job.
The younger sister wanted to be part of the interview.	*Seems to have a strong bond with her sister, could be that she is the one who fed her, took to school and spent most time with her. She is also the older sister so she may want to do whatever she is doing.
Everyone dressed in modern clothing. The furniture in the house also is modern with lounge and dinning furniture.	*The mother, probably with the help of the step dad seem to be able to financially provide for the family.
Talking to P1 in her bedroom about life of a teen, she seemed like she was getting uncomfortable especially about issues she regarded as taboo or prohibited by the family.	*Family has strong beliefs that should be abided by every family member.
Keep little eye contact throughout the interview. But after the interview she walked me out and even smiled.	*Interview situation rehashed painful realities about her dad

	*The step dad does not stay with them because he has not yet married P1's mother. He seems to obey the African culture of not cohabitating before marriage.
	*P1 is reserved and quiet, step dad is friendly and sociable and mum seems to have a firm character about her.
PARTICIPANT 2	
OBSERVATIONS	**REFLECTIVE NOTES**
DATE: 27 AUGUST 2017 (SATURDAY 12:30)	
-I got lost getting to P2's house and he had to come collect me at an agreed location. I could not locate his house on my GPS.	*I think the reason I was not able to locate his house is because he resides in a backyard house and therefore they gave me the incorrect address to the main house. Or it could be that the yard is in an informal settlement.
-He stays in Ivory park. There are different types of housing in the area (backyard shacks and houses). A lot of churches and road side vendors. There is a lot of people and car movement.	*This side of Tembisa shows indications of unemployment and poverty. The streets are not well taken care of with drainage water everywhere.
-He lives in a backyard shack with his mother, sister and niece.	*Mum is not earning a lot to afford a formal house, especially working as a domestic worker.
-He seems confident, did not seem intimidated by the whole interview.	*He is a self-assured young man, could be that he had to be independent and strong to help his mother?
-They don't have water and electric supply. They get water from the tap in the yard. Mom was washing laundry.	*They have roles that they take up. Life is not as comfortable when compared to P1.
-P2 seems to be the one taking responsibility of his niece when mum is at work. He was blowing his younger sisters nose.	*P2 takes up mum's responsibilities and becomes the nurturer besides what society expects of boy children. He also seems to have a caring nature.

-Mom is not fluent in English and P2 had to translate some of the things I said in the informed consent process.	*Mum might not have formal education therefore not getting opportunities work wise.
-There is one single bed so some people might sleep on the floor. Bedroom and kitchen are combined. There is a table that plays a dual role of kitchen table and study table.	*There is no privacy and standard of living is very low.
-P2 talks a lot with gestures. His mood or facial expression is constant when talking about fathers, father involvement and his father.	*He seems to have a flamboyant personality. May it is because he enjoys teenage girl's company over that of teenage boys.
-The yard was noisy with four to five other families there. The yard is small and the backyard houses are crammed	

ANNEXURE H - SEATING CHART



ANNEXURE I – EXAMPLES OF CODES, QUOTES AND DESCRIPTION

Please note that this is just an example of the analysed field notes made during individual interviews. The complete set of codes, quotes and descriptions is included on the compact disc (CD) attached to the last page of the mini-dissertation.

CODE	DOCUMENT CODE IS LOCATED	QUOTATION
Absenteeism A father who is not physically there because he is always moving due to work responsibilities or looking for work.	Focus group discussion interview, Line -14	**PARTICIPANT 2:** He was like, always moving.
	Focus group discussion interview, Line -19	**PHETOLO:** Why was he moving a lot? **PARTICIPANT 2**: Because of work, yeah
	Focus group discussion interview, Line -21	**PHETOLO:** Okay so if he changes a job it would require him to go somewhere? **PARTICIPANT 2:** Yeah, he has to move.
	Focus group discussion interview, Line-22	**PARTICIPANT 2:** Currently he is in Durban.
	Focus group discussion interview, Line-23	**PARTICIPANT 3**: Aaaa no, he works there but then I think he has a place there.
Academically invested Father interested and concerned about his child's education and future prospects.	Sepedi interview 1, Line -26	**PARTICIPANT 1:** Then *ja* do school work and stuff.
	Sepedi interview 1, Line -27	**PARTICIPANT 1:** Yes, he also helps me with schoolwork.
	Sepedi interview 1, Line -41	**PARTICIPANT 1:** Like maybe sometimes he would pay like if you go to university or somewhere, maybe he would help me pay school fees just like my brother- my brother dropped out because he had no money to pay school fees, plus he was too playful.
	Focus group discussion interview, Line -56	**PARTICIPANT 1:** Yes, my step father had an influence cause he would want to know what happens at school anytime I come back home.
	Focus group discussion interview, Line -68	**PARTICIPANT 3:** *Uhhmmm*... let me say.....based on my career, he wanted me to be a lawyer then it was inside me then I had to accept it but then it was inside me being a lawyer.